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POPULAR EDUCATION

IN ENGLAND, 1897-1898.

By J. GEORGE HODGINS, M.A., LL.D.,
TORONTO.

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REPORT ON

POPULAR EDUCATION IN ENGLAND,

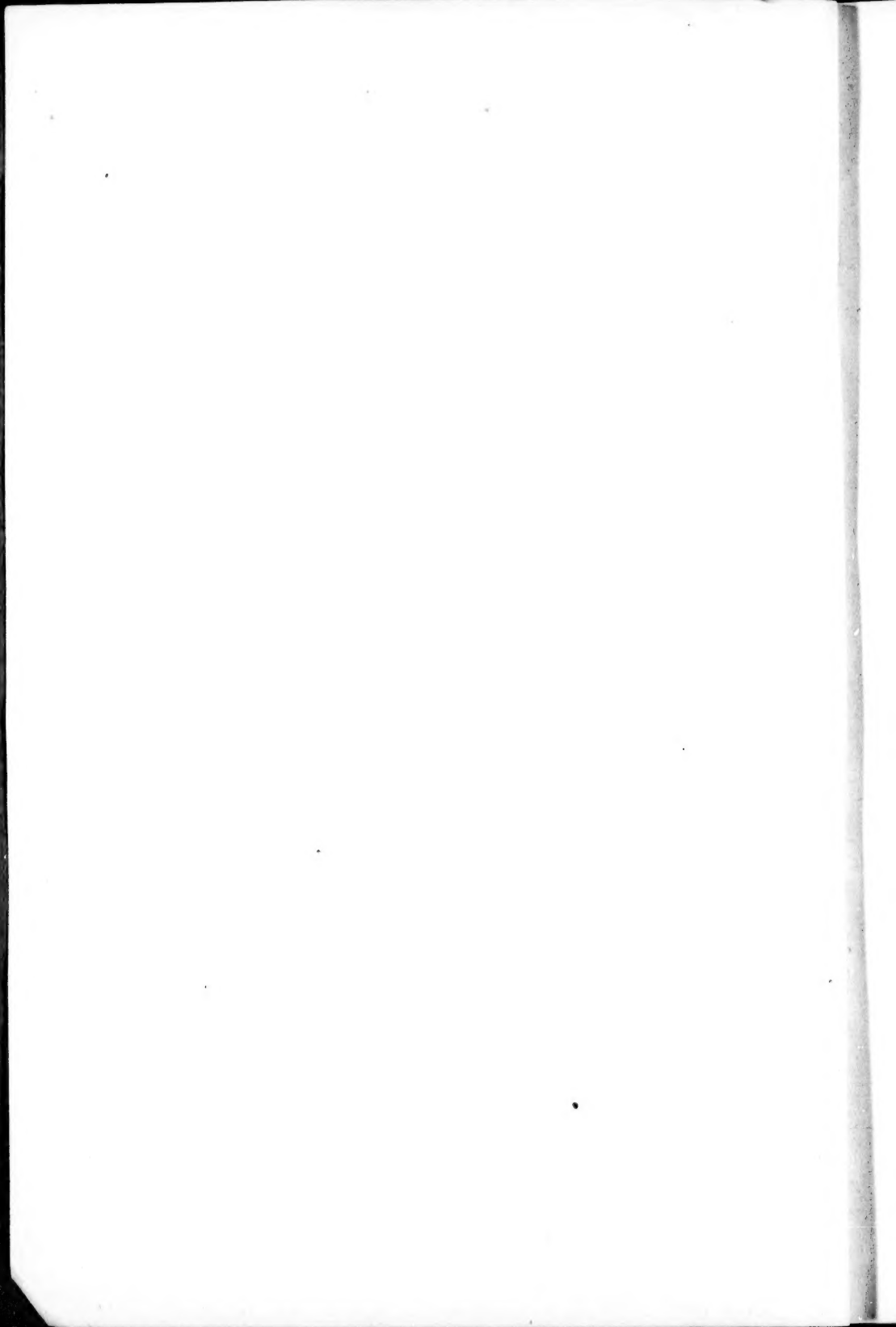
1897-98.

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DEPARTMENT FOR ONTARIO.

Being Appendix N. of the Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario
for the Year 1897-98.

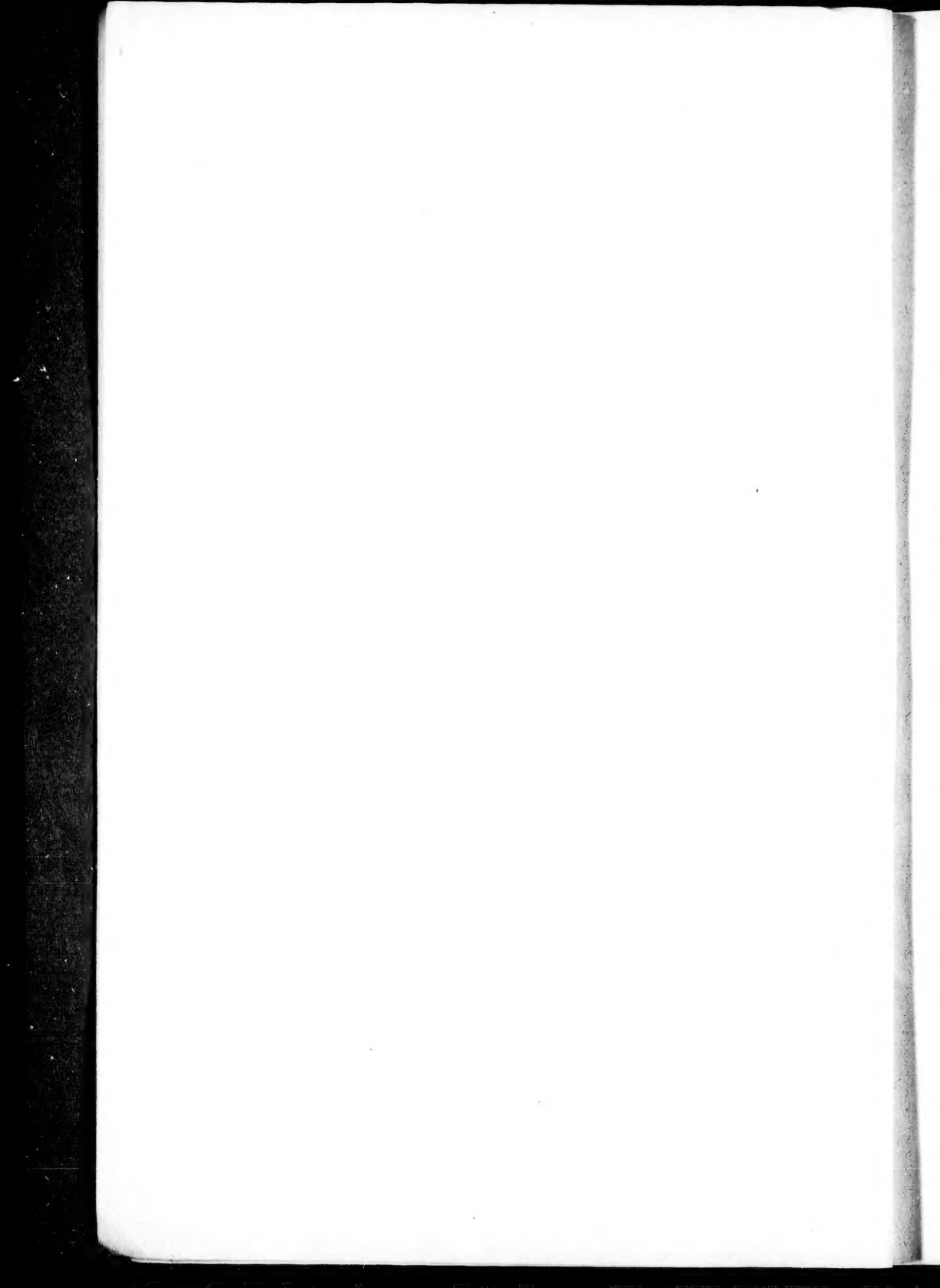
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REPORT ON

POPULAR EDUCATION IN ENGLAND, 1897-98.

To the Honourable the Minister of Education for Ontario.

I enclose herewith, for publication, as an appendix to your Report, a special Report on the state and progress of "Popular Education in England"—the statistics illustrating which I have brought down to the latest date of their publication in England, viz., in 1897-98.

I was prompted to prepare the substance of this Report, while recently in England, on leave, when I became aware of the remarkable progress which had been made in educational affairs there, since 1844, when I accompanied the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, late Chief Superintendent of Education, in his visit to various Schools in England and Scotland.

I found upon enquiry, that in 1844—the year in which the Rev. Dr. Ryerson was appointed to his office, (and I as his assistant,)—the grant made by Parliament in aid of popular education in England and Wales did not exceed the sum of £40,000; while, in this last year, (1898), when I was in England, this grant had arisen to the truly imperial sum of £8 520,175 for elementary education, besides the grants of £3,445,621 for education in Ireland and Scotland, or a total of £11,965,796 for the three Kingdoms. Of course, the question naturally arose, as to what were the causes which brought about so remarkable a change in public opinion, in England, in regard to popular education.

This question is partially answered by the Honourable George C. Broderick, Warden of Merton College, Oxford, in an article which he wrote in the *Fortnightly Review* for July, 1896. In that article he points out what has been the result of the far reaching and powerful influence of Oxford and Cambridge in stimulating and moulding public opinion in England on the subject of Elementary, as well as Secondary, Education in that Country.

Two other influences have been, of late years, at work in England to produce a like result. These influences have been almost as strong and effective as that of the Universities, but they were of a totally different character, and of a more direct and practical kind.

The first, and most potent, of these influences has been partly commercial, in its active side, in pursuit of openings, and partly national, in its competitive form. The other educational factor, which has produced good results, and which has largely helped to mould public opinion, has been the practice of prominent men and politicians, of all shades of opinion, to address gatherings of various kind on some special educational topic. These addresses rarely take a political form; but deal with such questions as "Commercial Education," "Agricultural Education," "Training Colleges," "Secondary Schools," "Manual Training," "Naval and Military Education," "Museums," "College Endowments," "Technical Instruction," and "Science Schools," etc.

This feature of English educational life is dealt with more fully in the last Chapter of this Report, I would, therefore, refer you to it for fuller information on the subject.

I have briefly referred, in some Chapters, to the interesting collateral subjects of Industrial Education, Secondary Schools and University Extension in England.

J. GEORGE HODGINS.

Toronto, 20th of February, 1899.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

I was much surprised and interested, on coming to England, on leave, to find how absorbing a topic Public Education had become of late years in that Country.

I was the more interested in the condition and progress of Education in England, from the fact that, in a visit with the Rev. Dr. Ryerson to various Schools in that Country in 1846, we found that, with the exception of the Borough Road Training School, London, and St. Mark's Training College, Chelsea, and what might be termed their Schools of Practice, and some other Elementary Schools under private control, there was practically little organized effort made to promote Popular Education in England.*

Another fact, which tended to increase my interest in Public Education in England was that I had, (in 1862-63 and in 1868-69), the rare advantage of meeting two most distinguished English Educationists—in the former year, the Rev. James Fraser, then Education Commissioner to the United States and Canada, and afterwards the able and distinguished Bishop of Manchester; and, sometime afterwards, the Right Hon. W. E. Forster, the Founder, in 1870, of the present System of Popular Education in England. These Gentlemen having been in Canada, as intimated, discussed with the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, at some length, the general subject of education, and its development in Upper Canada, and I was requested to furnish them with such details of our Public School System as might be of interest to them, which I did.

I had frequently occasion to furnish information in regard to our Upper Canada School System to many other Gentlemen from time to time. In a Note received from the Rev. Dr. J. H. Rigg, Principal of the Wesleyan Training College at Westminster, he says:—"I remember distinctly my introduction to you in 1873, and your ready help in explaining to me the work and the plans and arrangements carried out by Dr. Ryerson, with your aid."

CHAPTER I.—THE ENGLISH SCHOOL LEGISLATION OF 1870, AND SUBSEQUENTLY.

Mr. Forster's notable School Act of 1870 forms the ground work and foundation of all subsequent School Legislation in England: and each of the successive Education Acts of 1873, 1884, 1876, 1880, 1890, 1891, 1893 and 1897, (of which latter there are three), are made to "read" as part of the original Forster Act of 1870.

The Education Department, (or the "Lords of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education,") exercise an active official control over both the Voluntary and the Board Schools. This it is enabled the more effectively to do, by reason of the fact, that the Parliamentary Grants for these Schools is, by the Legislature, placed at its disposal. This Grant the Department impartially administers to both classes of Schools alike, being guided in its distribution by the carefully prepared and very full Reports of the School Inspectors.

The popular interest with which the subject of Public Education is regarded in England at present is greatly stimulated by recent legislation, and by the increased efforts, as the result of that legislation, of the several educational organizations, which are recognized and aided, as such, by the central authority, or the "Lords of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education." These organizations are active co-operative workers, and, by their zeal in maintaining Schools, give practical proof of their own vitality, and of their earnestness in promoting the cause of popular education in England, from their own standpoint.

* Having embodied a good deal of information, in regard to these, and other, Schools in England in 1846-6, in the Fifth Volume of the "Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada," I need not further refer to the matter here.

THE VOLUNTARY EDUCATIONAL CO-WORKERS IN ENGLAND.

Of these voluntary organizations there are five, acting independently of each other, and rivalling, more or less successfully, in many respects, the "Board", or purely Government, Schools of the Country. They are:—(1) the Anglican "National Society;" (2) the "Roman Catholic;" (3) the "Wesleyan Committee on Education;" (4) the non-denominational "British and Foreign Society," and (5) the "Church of England (evangelical) Home and Colonial School Society."

The comparative strength and vitality of these five "Voluntary School" Societies, and of the Government "Board Schools," may be seen from the following Table, taken from the Privy Council Education Report for 1897-98:

	No. of Schools.	Accommodation.	Average Attendance.
1. Anglican	11,813	2,756,911	1,869,398
2. Roman Catholic.....	1,018	380,241	240,191
3. Wesleyan.....	456	181,288	124,488
4 and 5. British and Foreign, and the Home and Colonial.....	1,131	348,994	231,118
Board Schools	14,418	3,667,434	2,465,193
	5,539	2,552,724	2,022,850
Grand Totals.....	19,957	6,220,158	4,489,043

In addition to these several School organizations, there are some active propagandist associations, which have been organized for the purpose of opposing, or championing, the "Board," or "Voluntary", school systems, as the case may be. Other educational associations exist. Among them are those for the purpose of promoting "Technical and Secondary Education," "for the maintenance of definite Religious Education in the Public Elementary Schools," and for various other purposes. There are also Teachers' "Associations," "Guilds," and "Unions," for the purpose of advancing their several interests.

MAINTENANCE OF THE ENGLISH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS BOARD AND VOLUNTARY.

Owing to recent agitation in England of the subject of popular education,—stimulated by the demands of the Voluntary Schools,—the Imperial Parliament, in 1897, passed a brief Act, providing liberally for the maintenance of Voluntary Schools, as managed by the various Religious and other organizations named. This was done without in any way diminishing the Grant, or directly, or indirectly, interfering with the right secured to the Board Schools by the Forster School Act of 1870, of requiring the "rating authority" of a locality to raise, by "local rate," such sums, to make up deficiencies, as might be required by the School Board. While the Voluntary Schools Act of 1897 has not perceptibly weakened the claims, or lessened the rights, of the School Boards, it has given a wonderful impetus to the cause of Voluntary Schools, and has awakened among their supporters a latent interest in their success throughout England. This fact is emphasized in the recent Reports of the various Voluntary School Societies. They all

more or less dwell, with great satisfaction, upon what they regard as an assured certainty that Voluntary Schools have finally "come to stay;" but this is very doubtful, as I have endeavored to show in Chapter XIII.

As a set-off to this Grant to Voluntary Schools, Parliament made another Special Grant to the Board Schools, but of a very much smaller amount.

Before referring in detail to the interesting history and characteristic features of the various Denominational organizations, for the support and maintenance of Voluntary Schools in England, it may be desirable to note down a few facts which illustrate what may be considered the comprehensive and greatly improved character of the present System of Popular Education in that Country, as embodied in the Acts of Parliament, expanded and amplified, as they are, in the yearly "Code" of the "Lords Committee of the Privy Council on Education."

CHAPTER II.—SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ENGLISH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYSTEM.

1. And first, I may refer to the Parliamentary Grant. This, to a colonial mind, seems marvellously great. Only fancy £8,056,758 as the grant of 1897-98 for "elementary schools" of various kinds, including \$37,160 as pensions for Teachers, in England and Wales, and also £171,856 for Training Colleges. This sum of £8,056,758 is equal (at the rate of \$4 85 to the pound sterling) to \$39,808 777, or over thirty-nine millions of dollars for elementary and training schools in England and Wales for one year. Including "administration" and "inspection" the aggregate expenditure for Public Education in England and Wales for 1897-98 does not fall far short of \$45,000,000. I may here state that the Elementary School Grant of the same year for Ireland is £1,221,734, and for Scotland £1,281,867, or £11,023 776 in all for the promotion of Popular Education in the three Kingdoms—over Fifty Millions of dollars for one year!

THE ACT OF 1891, ESTABLISHING FREE RURAL SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.

2. The next feature of the English School System, to which I would allude, is the Parliamentary provision, in the Act of 1891, for the establishment of practically "free schools," chiefly in the rural parts of England and Wales. This is done by what is called a "fee grant;" that is, a grant over and above, and in addition to, the ordinary Parliamentary Grant to a School, on the basis of average attendance. This Grant is designed to enable School Managers to dispense with school fees from pupils, or to diminish the amount of the fees payable to a School. Its effect is gradually to do away with school fees altogether. This incident of the "fee grant" is not altogether popular with the Managers of Voluntary Schools, as they cannot fall back upon a school rate, as can the Board Schools, to make up any "deficiency" caused by the loss of the accustomed fees.

The number of free schools in England in 1897-98 was 16,912, out of 19,957; attended by 4,771,897 pupils, out of 6,220,158 on the rolls.

NATURE OF THE MANUAL TRAINING IN THE ENGLISH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

3. The third feature of the English School System, to which I would call attention, is the "movement for the introduction," as the recent Report of the Education Department states, "of manual training into all classes of schools, as a corrective to an excess of book work." In addition to this valuable and interesting feature of the English School System, the Education Department has provided for facilities being given in Schools for the practice of "cookery and laundry work, housewifery, practical woodwork and cottage gardening, etc. In order to promote the introduction into the schools generally, (and especially into the country schools,) of these practical and useful adjuncts to Education, the Department makes a special grant per unit of the average attendance of pupils, who,

upon examination, satisfies the Inspector of reasonable proficiency in these subjects. It was felt, and so expressed, that to prescribe, or recommend, the introduction of these several subjects into the Elementary Schools would not be acceptable, or be productive of practical results, unless provision was also made for specific grants for those pupils who should excel, more or less, in these various subjects.

As the late Report of the Education Department has gone somewhat fully into the reasons for the introduction of these practical features into the English country Schools, I am enabled to call attention to them, as characteristic of the English School System. They show how thoroughly and systematically the whole subject has been considered by the Department, and how practically these matter-of-fact details have been interwoven of late years into the very fibre of the system.

In order to fortify myself and my judgment in these matters, I have corresponded freely with representative men, who are practically engaged in school administration and management, and have to do with its many details.

I hope, later on, to be enabled to give the substance of the opinion of these men, who are there on the spot, and who can speak with authority, and as the result of their own personal experience. Although I have only referred to two systems of Parliamentary Grants to Schools, there are in reality four systems of Grants, to which I shall refer more fully hereafter. I shall then deal more at length with those features of the English School System which are comparatively new, and which will best illustrate what I regard as evidence of the growth and expansion of the English Elementary School System, and of the practical and progressive nature of recent school legislation in England.

CHAPTER III.—SUMMARY HISTORY OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.

Considering the complex nature of the machinery for promoting Popular Education in England, it would be very difficult for those not acquainted with the subject to understand how admirably, upon the whole, its several parts work together, and that, too, with so little friction, under the judicious control of the paramount central authority, known as "my Lords Committee of the Privy Council on Education." I shall, therefore, here make a brief reference to the influential organizations, which form part of that machinery, and which, although subsidiary, are yet co-ordinate workers in the great educational field, and which, as such, have, in past years, rendered important service to the cause of Popular Education in England.

EARLY HISTORY OF THE VOLUNTARY SCHOOL SYSTEM IN ENGLAND.

The operations of various Voluntary educational Societies in England date back to a time long before the Government took any official interest in Elementary Schools, or made Parliamentary Grants in aid of popular education.

The first movement, in favour of the education of the masses, was made by the (educationally) well-known Joseph Lancaster, in the year 1798. In 1805, King George III. gave his strong personal influence to, and warmly commended to public confidence and patronage, Lancaster's work and labours. To promote the cause, and also to encourage Lancaster in these labours, the House of Commons passed a Bill in 1807 to enable rate-payers to establish a School in each Parish; but the measure was rejected by the House of Lords, on the ground, that it left little or no control of the School to the Parish Minister. In 1808, the Royal Lancastrian Society was formed. In 1810 the name was changed to that of the British and Foreign School Society, a name which it still retains. It was not until 1833, (the year in which I came to Canada), that the first Parliamentary Grant of £20,000 was made for the promotion of Elementary Education in England and Wales, but only £17,700 of it was expended for that purpose.

THE BELL AND LANCASTER MONITORIAL SYSTEM.

In a valedictory address by the Rev. Dr. Waller, on his retirement as President of the Wesleyan Conference in 1896, he thus referred to these early educational movements in England :

"By far the best service rendered by the Rev. Dr. Andrew Bell* and Mr. Joseph Lancaster was in arousing a spirit of enthusiasm in favour of education. Their greatest disservice sprung out of their dispute—'in its origin largely a personal one'—which ended in the formation of two separate educational camps. The religious struggle was probably inevitable from the first. At any rate, two educational Societies arose—the British and Foreign School Society, founded in 1810 by Non-conformists, who were the followers of Lancaster, and the National Society, established in 1811 by Members of the Church of England, who were the followers of Bell. Then began the religious difficulty in Schools. During the first third of the present century the education of the children of the poor was carried on exclusively by voluntary agencies. It was during this period that those two great educational Societies came into existence. Two names stand out prominently, and they deserve to be honoured. I refer to Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell. These two men were the first to formulate a scheme, and they were, in some sense, the parents of our present system.

"These men had the power to inspire others with the zeal by which they were animated. Voluntary effort to educate the poor was greatly stimulated, and Schools were started in most of the Towns of this Country. They were the authors of the 'monitorial' system—possibly the best agency then available."

JOSEPH LANCASTER'S INTERVIEW WITH KING GEORGE III.

Joseph Lancaster's efforts to establish Schools were first made in 1798, when he opened his first School in Southwark, London. In 1805, George III., who became greatly interested in Lancaster's work, sent for him. A former School Inspector, Sir Joshua Fitch, thus describes the quaint interview between them, as related by Mr. Corston, a contemporary of Lancaster's. It is a most interesting narrative, describing, as it does, the origin of an educational movement, and also an experiment in teaching, unique of its kind, which might be considered as the parent, or fore-runner, of many other similar experiments in modes of teaching.

Mr. Corston says:—"On entering the royal presence at Weymouth, the King said: 'Lancaster, I have sent for you to give me an account of your system of education, which, I hear, has met with opposition. One Master teach 500 children at the same time! How do you keep them in order, Lancaster?' Lancaster replied: 'Please, thy Majesty, by the same principle thy Majesty's army is kept in order—by the word of command.' His Majesty replied: 'Good, good. It does not require an aged General to give the command, one of younger years can do it?' Lancaster observed that, in his Schools, the teaching branch was performed by youths, who acted as monitors. The King assented and said 'Good.' Lancaster then described his system, and he informed me that they all paid great attention and were highly delighted. And as soon as he had finished, His Majesty said: 'Lancaster, I highly approve of your system, and it is my wish that every poor child in my dominions should be taught to read the Bible. I will do anything you wish to promote that object. 'Please, thy Majesty,' said Lancaster, 'if the system meets thy Majesty's approbation, I can go through the country and lecture on the system, and have no doubt but, in a few months, I shall be able to give thy Majesty an account where 10,000 poor children are being educated, and some of my youths instructing them.' His Majesty

*The tablet monument to the Rev. Dr. Bell, which I saw in Westminster Abbey, represents him as instructing a class of children.

immediately replied: 'Lancaster, I will subscribe £100 annually,' and, addressing the Queen, 'you shall subscribe £50, Charlotte, and the Princesses £25 each,' and then added, 'Lancaster you may have the money directly.' Lancaster observed, 'Please thy Majesty, that will be setting thy nobles a good example.'

ORIGIN OF THE BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY, (NON-DENOMINATIONAL).

The Royal Lancasterian Society, organized in 1808, became the non-denominational British and Foreign School Society in 1810. The constitution of the Society declares that it is founded for "promoting the education of the labouring and manufacturing classes of society of every religious persuasion; and for the purpose of making manifest the extent of its objects It shall support and train up young persons of both sexes for supplying properly instructed Teachers to the inhabitants of such places in the British Dominions, at home and abroad, as shall be desirous of establishing Schools on the British [and Foreign School Society] System."

The work of the Society, during the early years of its existence, is stated in its Ninety-Second Report, to have been: "The maintenance of a Central School, which should at one and the same time (1) educate the boys and girls of the neighbourhood; (2) offer a model for imitation throughout the Country, the Colonies and abroad; (3) train Teachers in the Lancasterian system; (4) stir up educational zeal and secure the establishment of similar Schools, wherever there were children to be taught."

The work which this Society has in hand at present is the maintenance of the Borough Road Normal College, which the Rev. Dr. Ryerson and I visited in 1846, now enlarged and removed to Isleworth, (on the Thames); the Bangor Training College, Wales; the Northern Training College, Darlington, and Training Colleges for Women at Stockwell, Saffron-Walden and Swansea. Each of these Colleges has Practice Schools. The Society also aids, or maintains, a few other Schools. Its income is derived from fees, the Government grant and special trust funds. Its expenditure in 1897, including its Training Colleges, was £42,642.2.2. The Parliamentary Grant to the British and Foreign School Society in 1897 was £24,294.8.11.

ORIGIN OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY (ANGLICAN).

This Society is by far the most extensive and influential of the Societies in England for the promotion of Voluntary (chiefly Denominational) Schools. It split off from the British and Foreign School Society in 1811, and, in 1817, it was incorporated as "The National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor, in the Principles of the Established Church, Throughout England and Wales." The National Society maintains three Training Colleges, viz., St. Mark's, Chelsea, and Battersea College, for men; White-lands, Chelsea, for women, besides about 28 Diocesan Training Colleges,—one of which is in Edinburgh. The Report of the Committee of Council on Education for 1897-98, states that the expenditure from the Education Grants on the 11,813 Elementary Schools, (including departments,) Training Colleges, etc., connected with the National (Church of England) Society, for that year amounted to £3,121,987.3.5. The same Report states that the voluntary contributions to these Schools, in 1896-7, reached the sum of £632,906,—being a falling off of these voluntary contributions during the year 1897 of £10,480.

In addition to its annual Report, the National Society publishes a number of controversial "fly sheets" and statements, in reply to numerous attacks upon its Voluntary (Denominational) Schools.

ROMAN CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The number of Roman Catholic Schools reported by the Privy Council Committee on Education in 1897-8 was 1,018, with an average attendance of 240,197 pupils. The Parliamentary Grant in aid of these Schools was £391,167-17-8. This Grant included that to three Training Colleges, viz., St. Mary's, Hammersmith, for men, and Mount Pleasant, Liverpool, and West Hill (London), Wandsworth (near London), for women. The voluntary contribution to these Schools in 1897-98 was £98,664.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF WESLEYAN DAY SCHOOLS.

In a printed summary of the "History of Wesleyan Education," it is stated that "Wesleyan Day Schools are as old as Methodism itself. Mr. Wesley's Day School, at 'the Foundry,' was one of his first Institutions." In 1833, the year in which the first Parliamentary Grant of £20,000 was made to Elementary Schools in England and Wales, the Wesleyan Conference passed a Resolution expressive of its satisfaction at the existence of Wesleyan Day Schools, and recommended "their establishment, whenever the means of supporting them can be obtained."

In 1836, a Committee of Conference was appointed to collect information in regard to Wesleyan Sunday and Day Schools. In 1837, this Committee reported the existence of 3,339 Sunday Schools, but it was only able to report 31 Day Schools, including nine for Infants.

It was not, however, until the Centenary Year of 1839,—the year in which the Committee of the Privy Council on Education was appointed, and the Parliamentary Grant to Schools was increased from £20,000 to £30,000,—that the Wesleyan Conference took up a strong position in regard to the establishment and maintenance of its Day Schools. Out of the proceeds of its Centenary Fund it appropriated £5,000 for the support of these Schools. At that time the Wesleyan Day Schools had increased from 31 in 1837, to 101, in 1839, attended by 4,193 pupils.

The first Teachers employed in these Schools, in 1841, were trained by Mr. David Stow, of the Normal Seminary, Glasgow. In that year a "Plan of Wesleyan Education" was agreed upon by the Conference, which, up to this time, has not been materially changed, or modified. It was not until 1847, that the Privy Council Committee on Education made special grants in aid of Wesleyan Day Schools. In that year, steps were taken by the Conference to establish a Training College at Westminster, which was opened in 1851, and is still in active operation.

After this, the number of Wesleyan Day Schools increased from 101 in 1839, to 698 in 1869, and to 841 in 1889, (including the separate departments in the Schools). After that, owing to apathy and opposing councils, the number of Schools, including departments, was, in 1896, reduced to 721. In 1897, the number had increased to 747. The passage of the Voluntary Schools Act in 1897 has, however, reawakened the zeal of the supporters of Wesleyan Schools. On this point the Rev. Dr. Waller, Secretary of the Wesleyan Educational Committee, in a Letter which I received from him, says:—

"For many years there was a strong anti-feeling in regard to our Day Schools, but, since the passage of the Voluntary Schools Act, there has been a complete change in the tone and feeling of the Connexion, and those, who were opposed to the extension of our Wesleyan Day Schools, now express an opinion that everything should be done, not only to maintain, but to increase the number of Wesleyan Schools. I may mention that, during the last few months, we have received more letters with regard to the establishment of new Day Schools than have come to hand for years past, and there seems every reason for believing that the Voluntary School System has been re-established."

In reply to a suggestion that Denominational Day Schools should, wherever practicable, be superseded by the Government Board Schools, the Report of the Wesleyan Committee on Education states that:—

"In several places 'Wesleyan and British' Schools have been closed, with the intention of securing Board Schools in their place. This purpose has been frustrated by the Church of England immediately supplying the lack of accommodation for pupils by the closing of these Schools, with the result that the elementary education in these places is now exclusively in the hands of the Church of England."

Thus Denominational rivalry will, so long as Voluntary (denominational) Schools, are sanctioned by law, and aided from the Parliamentary Grant, prevent, for the time, the establishment of the Government Board Schools in localities where Denominational Schools have now a foothold.

The Parliamentary Grant to the Wesleyan Schools in 1897 was £221,830-9-10, and the Voluntary contributions in support of these Schools during the same year was £19,777.

ORIGIN OF THE HOME AND COLONIAL SCHOOL SOCIETY (EVANGELICAL ANGLICAN).

This Society was established in 1835-36. Its objects were then declared to be :—

“The training of Teachers, and the improvement and extension of education on Christian principles, as such principles are set forth and embodied in the doctrinal Articles of the Church of England”

In reply to a Letter, which I addressed to the Principal of the Society's Training College at Gray's Inn Road, London, asking in what respect this Society differed from the National Society, he said :—

“This Society differed from the National Society in being more closely allied with the evangelical section of the Church of England” It, however, receives a grant of £152 a year from the National Society, and about £250 in contributions.

The Society has two Training Colleges for women, with Schools of Practice attached—one at Gray's Inn Road, and the other at Highbury Hill House—both in London. The latter is designated as the “Secondary School and Kindergarten Training College for Women.”

The Parliamentary grant to this Society in 1896-7 was, for all purposes, £4,931 18s. 6d.

VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS TO VOLUNTARY DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

The Voluntary Schools Defence Union of England have issued leaflets in favour of these Schools. In the last Report of the Committee of Council on Education the following statement in regard to contributions for Voluntary Schools is made :—

“The voluntary contributions for ‘maintenance’ of Schools have again risen per child in average attendance in Voluntary Schools. . . . Owing to the great increase in the total number of scholars in Voluntary Schools, the aggregate amount actually subscribed for ‘maintenance’ is much larger at the present time than formerly. In 1896, it was \$850,968, as against \$834,663 in 1895. In 1897, the voluntary contributions amounted to \$843,871, being \$7,094 less than in 1896. This, nevertheless, shows how ready are those who uphold the Voluntary System in Elementary Education to make large and constant sacrifices in support of their convictions; and, if we take into account the vast sums which have been voluntarily contributed to meet the cost of the erection, or structural repairs, of Voluntary Schools, the significance of these figures is enhanced.”

These voluntary contributions having fallen off in 1897, the Committee of the Privy Council on Education in 1898 utters this word of warning :

“We would take this opportunity of impressing on the supporters of Voluntary Schools the extreme importance of preventing any falling off in the aggregate of the voluntary contributions subscribed for these Schools.

“The necessary changes which it has been our duty to recognize in the fabric and premises of many Elementary Schools . . . have entailed considerable demands during a period of severe depression on the liberality of the supporters of Voluntary Schools. But the crisis seems rather to have quickened the zeal of the friends of Voluntary Schools than to have quenched their enthusiasm. Large sums of money have been raised, and, with comparatively few exceptions, the demands which it has been our duty to make have been readily met.

"As a result, we have the satisfaction of reporting that the condition of the School buildings have never been so good as it is at the present time, and that the supporters of voluntary management have shown themselves as ready, as in the past, to justify the confidence of the public in their energy and munificence" (See further on this subject in Chapter XIII.)

THE (OFFICIAL, OR GOVERNMENT,) BOARD SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND.

The notable Public Schools Act, introduced into the British Parliament in 1870 by Mr. Forster, was the first of English legislation which recognized the desirability and necessity of definitely providing Elementary Schools "for the children of all classes of Her Majesty's subjects," uncontrolled by any of the various Religious Bodies which, up to that year, had the entire control of popular education, and was in denominational hands. Mr. Forster very wisely imposed no restriction on the Schools of these Voluntary Religious organizations, except that embodied in the "Conscience Clause" of the Act. He provided that the Voluntary, equally with the Board, Schools, should share in any Parliamentary Grants for elementary education; but he could not equally confer upon them, as upon Board Schools, the right to impose taxes upon the ratepayers, who had the right of representation on the School Boards, but not in regard to Voluntary Schools.

As might have been anticipated, the number of Board Schools has increased rapidly. In 1872, there were only 28 of them in England and Wales. In 1897, they reached the number of 5,539.

Of all the School Boards of England that of London is the largest and most important. It had under its jurisdiction in 1898, 1,378 Schools, including separate departments, taught by one or more Teachers. The number of pupils on the roll in 1898 was 529,382, and the daily average attendance was 431,287. The number of Teachers employed by the Board was 1,898, at a cost for salaries of £1,314,000.

GENERAL FEATURES OF THE ENGLISH SCHOOL SYSTEM.

In the next Chapter I have summarized the main features of what appears to me as a well-considered and thoroughly practical system of instruction for Elementary Schools in England—Board and Voluntary alike. The prominence given to what some might regard as subordinate subjects of instruction is the result of foresight in the matter. And their subjects form, nevertheless, an excellent feature of the "Code," as explained; and they are well adapted for instruction in the Schools. Their insertion in the "Code," therefore, shows how carefully the whole subject has been considered, and how the details of the curriculum have been suited to the necessities of a Country like England. They are calculated, as was intended, to fit the youth of the Country for practical and useful lives. They are also especially designed to promote the success, after leaving School, of those who have taste and talent to engage in individual pursuits, requiring skill of hand and accuracy of eye, as well as of thought and judgment.

CHAPTER IV.—CODE, OR SYLLABUS, OF INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

I give in this Chapter the result of my analysis of those provisions of the English Elementary School Acts, amplified by the "Code of 1888," relating to subjects of instruction in the Schools, whether "Board" or "Voluntary." In brief, they may be thus summarized: The elementary obligatory subjects prescribed for instruction in all of the Schools are as follows:—

Obligatory Subjects: Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Needlework (for girls), and Drawing (for boys), in Schools for older scholars.

Optional, or "Class Subjects," designed to be taken by "classes" throughout the School, are: Singing (by note, or rote), Recitation (from a magazine, newspaper, or standard author), which must be satisfactorily taught; English, (or Welsh in Wales), French (in the Channel Islands),* Geography, Elementary Science, History; Suitable Occupations† (for Standards I., II., III.), (1) Needlework (for girls), optional, as a "class" subject; Domestic Economy (for girls).

Optional, or "Specific Subjects," designed to be taken by individual children in the upper classes of a School, are: Algebra, Euclid, Mensuration, Mechanics, Chemistry, Physics, Elementary Physics and Chemistry, Animal Physiology, Hygiene, Principles of Agriculture, Horticulture, Navigation, Latin, French, Welsh, (in Welsh schools), German, Bookkeeping, Shorthand, Domestic Science.

Optional Subjects for girls: Cooking, Domestic Science, Domestic Economy, Laundrywork, Dairywork, Cottage Gardening, Manual Instruction, Drawing, etc.

NOTE.—Instructions may be given in other secular subjects. But these subjects must be approved by the Education Department, i.e., those prescribed for "Evening Continuation Schools." (See Chapter VII.)

It will thus be seen that a wise and proper discrimination has been made between (1), the obligatory subjects, which are purely of a practical character, and (2), the three classes of those which are optional. The introduction of any of them into the School is at the discretion of the Board, or by the Managers of Voluntary Schools. If they are so introduced, the Board, or the Managers, will each have to provide a sufficient number of Teachers to carry on the additional work thus imposed upon the School, as agreed upon by the Board, or Managers.‡

A TWOFOLD SYSTEM OF OBLIGATORY AND OPTIONAL SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.

It is interesting, at this point, to inquire how this dual system of "obligatory" and "optional" subjects of instruction has been worked out in practice.

Two influences have been clearly at work to produce success in carrying out this dual system, and, at the same time, to ensure harmony in doing so. The first and most obvious one would naturally be utility. The second would be financial in its character. To meet this latter contingency, provision has been made to enable Managers of Board and Voluntary Schools to exercise their judgment in introducing into their Schools such special and optional subjects, as they might regard as desirable. An extra Parliamentary Grant is, therefore, provided, out of which is made an fixed allowance for each optional subject introduced into a School. Thus, there was paid by the Education Department, for the year ending August, 1897, the following sums for proficiency in the "optional" class, and "specific subjects" mentioned below:

* For many years there has been a strong disposition manifest in Guernsey to substitute English for the French language in Public Institutions. The Guernsey Legislative Assembly decided, in 1898, by a vote of twenty-four votes to eleven, that the optional use of the English language will be permitted in the States of the Legislative Assembly. French has hitherto been the official language in the Legislative Assemblies of the Channel Islands. In Jersey, the country parts of the island are adverse to the change.

† "Suitable Occupations" in the "Code" refers to such manual work, as modelling in clay, cart-ridge, or cardboard, paper; drawing and colouring, designs, brush drawing, etc. "Occupations" must be educative, and should especially stimulate independent effort and inventiveness. — (Departmental Circular, March 17, 1896)

‡ There are six classes of teachers recognized by the Education Department as eligible for employment in the Schools, viz.: (1) probationers, (2) pupil teachers, (3) assistant teachers, (4) provisionally-certified teachers, (5) certificated teachers, (6) women approved by the Inspectors as additional teachers. (See Chapter V.)

GRANTS FOR OPTIONAL SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY DAY SCHOOLS.

Name of Optional Subjects for Older Scholars.	Rate per Unit of Average Attendance of Older Scholars.	Amount Paid.
		£ s. d.
First "Class" Subjects	One shilling	18,631 4 0
First "Class" Subjects	Two shillings	272,204 16 0
Second "Class" Subjects	One shilling	9,976 12 0
Second "Class" Subjects	Two shillings	266,246 4 0
"Specific" Subjects	Two shillings	2,326 8 0
"Specific" Subjects	Three shillings	25,869 15 0
Singing by note	One shilling	136,121 12 0
Singing by ear	Sixpence	9,828 4 0
Discipline and Organization	One shilling	13,808 2 0
Discipline and Organization	One shilling and sixpence	213,059 15 6
Needlework	One shilling	36,694 6 0
Cookery..... } For girls	Four shillings	33,561 4 0
Laundry work	Two shillings	2,262 6 0
Dairy work..... }	Four shillings	0 0 0
Cottage gardening	Two shillings	39 8 0
Cottage gardening	Four shillings	125 8 0
		£1,041,385 3 6
<i>Optional Subjects in Infant Schools.</i>		
Needlework or Drawing	One shilling	69,338 17 0
Singing by note	One shilling	61,380 8 0
Singing by ear	Sixpence	4,067 16 0
		£1,176,223 4 6

In addition to this sum of £1,176,223 4s. 6d. paid for these "optional" subjects, there is also a large additional sum paid for the maintenance of Elementary day Schools, as well as for Kindergarten Schools for Infants.

ENGLISH PRIVY COUNCIL EXPLANATORY REPORT ON EDUCATION FOR 1896-97.

In the Report of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education for England and Wales for 1896-97, the Committee has published an elaborate and carefully prepared statement of the reasons, which had induced the Education Department to provide for the introduction of these optional "class" and "specific" subjects into the Schools—Board and Voluntary Schools alike—of England and Wales.

I have selected some of the more striking and interesting portions from this part of the explanatory Report of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education.*

In the preliminary part of this Report, the Committee of Council say:—

"The experience of those who are in charge of the Schools shows them, year by year, how the education given therein ought to be improved, in order that the Nation may gain full benefit for the large outlay that is made. . . . An excellent System of Public Education is one of the best forms of national investment. In commercial and industrial efficiency, in a high level of civic duty, and, above all, in the wider diffusion of moral culture and religious feeling, the Nation is amply repaid for what it spends. . . . In proportion to the increasing magnitude of the work undertaken and accomplished by the Schools, the Grants voted by Parliament continue to rise. We have reason, however, to believe that this great outlay from the public funds is regarded by the Nation at large as indispensable to the material and moral welfare of Her Majesty's subjects in England and Wales.

* It is clear that the Privy Council, as a whole, assume the responsibility of these official utterances of the Education Department, for the Report, and each successive "Code," is signed both by the "Lord President of the Privy Council," the Duke of Devonshire, and by the "Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education," Sir John E. Gorst, as well as by the Secretary of the Committee, Sir George Kekewich.

SCHOOLS.

Amount
Paid.

£	s.	d.
18,631	4	0
272,204	16	0
9,976	12	0
266,246	4	0
2,326	8	0
25,869	15	0
136,121	12	0
9,828	4	0
13,808	2	0
213,059	15	6
36,694	6	0
33,561	4	0
2,262	6	0
0	0	0
39	8	0
125	8	0

41,385 3 6

69,338 17 0

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"At no former time have the labours of the local educational authorities of the Board Schools, and of the Voluntary School Managers, and of the teaching staff, been so highly valued by the Country, or so heartily supported by public opinion. . . . And few changes have been more striking, during the last quarter of a century, than the gradual growth of the public conviction, that money laid out on a good and fitting education is wisely and profitably spent.

NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE MANUAL TRAINING* FOR BOYS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

"The movement for the instruction of Manual Training into all classes of Schools, as a corrective to an excess of book work, seems to be gaining strength in this as in other Countries. † It is felt that the exercise of the hand and eye, as well as of the memory and the powers of verbal expression, is necessary to true education. It appears to be true that the process of growth in a child's mind is furthered by Manual Training, and that the latter promotes the attainment of power and accuracy in other studies. These considerations point to a closer correlation between Manual Training and other subjects of the School curriculum—the former being rightly regarded as an integral part of School training, and not as an optional, or disconnected, appendix to it.

"In this wider sense the training of hand and eye finds a place in the Kindergarten, as well as in the Schools for older scholars; but, in the latter case, it naturally takes other forms. Varied occupations in the former class of Schools, and in the latter, brush work, clay modelling—with special reference to lessons in History and Natural Science—and cardboard work, have all been found useful, by stimulating the activity and developing the inventive powers of the children. . . . It is happily the case that Manual Training, when wisely planned, does carry with it the incidental advantage of enabling the scholar to acquire useful skill, which will increase the comfort and economy of home life.

Many children, who are backward in literary expression, show a compensating aptitude for expression with their hands, and are thus saved from dangerous discouragement, which sometimes forces them, without deserving it, into the dunce's place.

"Carpentering is a delight to most boys, when they are old enough to use the necessary tools; and we have sanctioned, during the past year, an addition to our building, rules, with the object of securing that rooms for woodwork should be planned with the simplicity and economy suitable for Workshops."

In the subsequent Report of the Committee of Council for 1897-98, the Committee state that they: "Have made important changes in regard to Manual Instruction in public Elementary Schools. The value of Manual Instruction, as an element in the curriculum of Schools, is being increasingly appreciated. It has been found that, as a disciplinary exercise, it trains hand and eye to accuracy, and to a better appreciation of form. We have . . . published a paper of suggestions, with a view to enabling [Managers of Schools] to take advantage of the best experience as yet available. It has been found that many boys who are dull at the books disclose marked capacity for the skilful use of tools."

The Report for 1896-97 further states that: "One room for Drawing, or Chemistry, or Manual Instruction, or Laundry Work, or Cookery, will often serve for several Schools in the same neighborhood. Workshops and Laundry are best apart from the Schools.

* The expression "Manual Training" has been defined in the Technical Instruction Act of 1889 to mean "instruction in the use of tools, processes of agriculture, and modelling in clay, wood or other material.

† I have given some particulars as to the systems of manual, or industrial, training in Germany and France in another Chapter, (XI).

NATURE AND OBJECT OF MANUAL TRAINING FOR GIRLS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

"The Manual Training for girls naturally takes the form of Needlework, including a 'sewing course' and a 'knitting' and a 'mending course'; Cookery, including the subjects of food and beverage, their properties, nutrition, values and functions, preparation, etc.; laundrywork, solvent properties of water, hard and soft; clothing, dwelling, washing, etc.

"We observe with satisfaction that more thought is being given to the ways of teaching these subjects, and we are far from desiring to substitute unreal, or fanciful, forms of instruction for the more homely, but withal scientific lessons, which best arouse the interest of the children, because they are nearer to their personal experience of daily needs, and to the actual circumstances of their home life.

"It is a grave blunder in a Cookery lesson to ignore the humbler and more ordinary kinds of foods, or to provide stoves and appliances of a kind unknown in cottage life.

"The teaching of Cookery has been so efficient that the lessons have been found to produce a perceptible and satisfactory improvement in the homes of the working classes.

COTTAGE GARDENING AND SCHOOL HORTICULTURE—OBSERVATION OF NATURAL OBJECTS.

"We are glad to recognize Cottage Gardening as capable of being made a valuable instrument in education. Encouraging reports reach us of the interest which is being taken in School Horticulture, and the pride of the children in their trim, well-kept gardens. Gardening is so widespread an interest in English life. . . . that we have drawn the attention of the School Inspectors to the condition on which we desire its encouragement, in connection with the Schools. . . . The main object of a School Garden is not the putting of boys as apprentices to the gardener's craft. . . . As a school subject it serves a general educational purpose. . . . We have recommended that the lessons in Elementary Science given in the School Room should be illustrated by practical work in the Garden, (or its equivalent), in order that the science may escape being made mere book-learning, and the Cottage Gardening may become something more than mere technical learning.

"It is sometimes forgotten that one of the most natural and fruitful methods of education is to train the powers of observation, and to build up intellectual and scientific interest around the natural objects of daily experience. Children are naturally interested in flowers, trees and animal life, and, in Country Schools, an observant Teacher, who is fond of such subjects, and who has properly prepared himself for studying them, can find in such "Object Lessons" a far more powerful instrument of early education than can be drawn from the less attractive institutes on which the town Teacher has to rely. Care should, therefore, be taken in training Teachers to show them that much that will give life and interest to their teaching is ready to their hand in a country district.

"We are glad to note the terms of praise in which some of the School Inspectors speak of the skill and intelligence of many of the country Teachers in those and in other respects."

WHAT A COUNTRY SCHOOL COULD AND SHOULD ACCOMPLISH.

In again referring to the subject of Country Schools, the Committee of Council, in their subsequent Report for 1897-98, lays stress on the importance of making these Schools thoroughly practical, and adapted to the social condition and instincts of the people. The Committee say:

"A Country School fails if it misses the opportunity of showing its scholars how much skill and knowledge underlie the operations familiar to them in their daily life, and of teaching them to feel pride in practical work well done, and intellectual interest in the principles involved in doing it. . . .

"The aim [of the School] should be, not to produce multitudes of clerks, but multitudes of good craftsmen. The tradition of the School should be to make the scholars not despise labour, but honour it, and aspire to become master craftsmen, instead of regarding handicraft as something socially inferior to unskilled service in shop, or office. If the School aims, and the Country Schools has unrivalled opportunities for so doing, at quickening and training the interest of the children in natural objects; at giving them alertness of mind and accuracy of observation; at stimulating their intelligent curiosity, as to the causes of things; at guiding them to find out things for themselves; at practising the hand, as well as the memory; and at teaching them to acquire skill in the use, not of the pen only, but of the brush, pencil and knife; at disciplining their reasoning powers, and guiding them to a perception of the principles underlying practice, and at fostering in them a sense of reverence for nature, it will be the more likely to succeed in laying the foundations of stable and upright character, and in preparing the ground for the inculcation of moral principle. It will also quicken the aptitude for self education, and give the best starting point, not only to the rank and file of scholars, but to those endowed with the exceptional faculties which, in the public interest, deserve farther opportunities of higher culture."

CHAPTER V.—THE TRAINING AND QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

In England there are five classes of Teachers recognized by the Education Department.

(1) Probationers are candidates, (now up to sixteen years of age,) for the office of Pupil-Teachers.

(2) Pupil-Teachers—boys and girls—are those engaged to teach during school hours, under the direction of the principal Teacher, and who also receive suitable instruction.

(3) Assistant Teachers are those who have passed the "Queen's Scholarship" examination, also graduates in arts, or science, and persons over eighteen years of age, who have passed certain University, or other prescribed, examinations. (See below).

(4) Provisionally certificated Teachers, or Pupil-Teachers, having fulfilled their engagement; women who, after two years' service, as additional Teachers, (practically, a sixth class), who have obtained a place in the first class in the "Queen's Scholarship" examination.

(5) Certificated Teachers are those who have been trained, and who have successfully passed certain examinations, and have otherwise fully complied with the requirements of the "Code."

TWO KINDS OF TRAINING COLLEGES FOR TEACHERS IN ENGLAND, ETC.

There are two kinds of Training Colleges, "residential" and "day," for persons who wish to become "Certificated Teachers." (The day Training College must be attached to some University College of University rank.) The period of training is, at least, two years. Those students who have passed a first, or second, class examination, and are admitted to a Training College are called "Queen's Scholars."

The Queen's Scholarship Examination was remodelled in 1898, and is now divided into three parts. "Success in parts i. and ii. qualifies the student as an assistant Teacher, but success in part iii. is necessary for admission to a Training College. A student is at liberty to offer—and this seems to be the preference of the Committee—for the Senior Oxford and Cambridge Locals, and other University examinations of like standing, in lieu of parts ii. and iii. The Training Colleges are to be at liberty to select their students from those who have succeeded in part iii., or an equivalent University examination. Many Teachers

will, therefore, receive a University education and hold a University qualification. It may be hoped that the spirit of University education will thus, in the course of time, permeate primary education, giving it both greater breadth and higher ideals."

The College of Preceptors, in London, grants diplomas of F.C.P., L.C.P. and A.C.P.—"fellows," "licentiates" and "associates of the College of Preceptors"—to Teachers who have passed certain examinations. These diplomas carry with them the right to those who hold them to wear appropriate gowns and hoods."

The average annual salaries of the "Principal" as a certificated Teacher, as given in the report of the Education Department for 1897-98, were:—Wesleyan Schools, £173; Board Schools, £166; British, etc., £144 10s; Church of England, £122 18s; Roman Catholic, £118 13s, 0d; general average, £140.

The Report of the Education Department for 1896-97 describes very fully the recent steps which have been taken by it to ensure the greater efficiency of the System of Education under its control. In regard to the Teachers it says:—

"In every grade of education, it is being more clearly realized that no pains are too great to raise the level of the Teacher's professional efficiency. Steps are, therefore, being taken, with our approval, to enhance the efficiency of the course of instruction for intending Teachers.

"We note with satisfaction the improvements which are in contemplation, or have actually been made, in the Buildings, Furniture and general convenience of the residential Training Colleges.

"The establishment of day Training Colleges, in connection with the Universities and literary Colleges, providing instruction of the University type, has already led to good results. . . . We consider, therefore, that the co-existence of these two kinds of Training Colleges is to the interest of public education. . . .

"We note with satisfaction the good results which have been found to follow from the experiment of allowing a small number of the third-year students to complete their professional studies at the Normal Schools in France and Germany.

NOTE.—The advantage of this kind of "post graduate" training is referred to at some length in one of the papers published in the First Volume of Special Reports issued by the English Education Department in 1897. The title of the paper is "Holiday Courses in France and Germany," etc., by Messrs. Marvin and Morant. The Report already quoted then proceeds:

"We allow graduates . . . in arts or science . . . to be recognized as Certificated Teachers, providing they hold a Certificate of proficiency in the theory and practice of teaching, issued by a Collegiate body, and approved by ourselves.

In an address on the University Training of Teachers, in December, 1898, Mr. Oscar Browning of King's College, Cambridge, said:—"Their Training College was now in the eighth year of its existence, and sufficient experience had been accumulated to establish some definite conclusions with regard to the success or failure of the enterprise; but, as regarded the combination of a University curriculum with the professional training of an elementary Schoolmaster, and the addition of a secondary department to the primary scheme with which they set out, the experiment has been a success, although it had been said that it was impossible to carry on the two branches of the work side by side."

The Report of the Department further remarks:—"We note with satisfaction the growing practice among Teachers of conferring with one another on educational methods, with a view to their improvement and better adaptation to the various needs of Town and Country Schools. . . .

There has of late years been a great increase of women and girl Teachers in the Elementary Schools. In 1870, the number of women Teachers was 6,072; in 1897 it had risen to 25,763; the number of women Assistant Teachers in 1870 was 775; in 1897 it was 21,322, besides 14,155 "additional" women Teachers. In 1870 there were 8,228 girls as Pupil-Teachers; in 1897 there were 26,850. The Report of the Committee on

Pupil Teachers, recommended "the abolition of female Teachers, whose only qualification is that they have been approved by the Inspector," and have no certificate as "woman Teachers," as they are styled.

The number of "day and night Institutions inspected" in 1897 was 24,184. This number did not include the "departments" in these "Institutions," which required separate "Head Teachers." Both together were 35,827, requiring on an average a little over three Teachers each.

Provision has been made for granting pensions to 830 Teachers who have complied with the conditions of the "Code" in regard to service, etc. The rates of yearly Pensions allowed by the "Code" are as follows:—59 at £30 each, 317 at £25 each and 454 at £20 each; £320 are available each year for "gratuities" and "donations," involving a total annual outlay for Teachers' pensions of £16,425, or about \$90,000. (In the Education Estimates of 1898-99 £37,190 are set down for pensions, but this may include other parties.)

THE ANOMALOUS AND UNSATISFACTORY POSITION OF PUPIL TEACHERS.

In regard to the unsatisfactory and anomalous position and duties of Pupil Teachers in the English Elementary Schools, the Privy Council Committee on Education state, in their Report for 1897-98, that they had "appointed a Committee to inquire into the working of the Pupil Teacher system, . . . and the supply of Teachers, as affected by that system. . . ."

The Report of that Committee was made public in 1898. In that Report the Committee state "that the training and education of the Pupil Teacher has been far too much neglected both by School Managers and Teachers. The former, especially in Voluntary Schools and small School Boards, find in the Pupil Teacher a cheap and ready means of supplying the requisite School staff, and exact, in the supposed interest of religious education, or a light school rate, an amount of child labour which, in many cases, is little less than white slavery. Growing boys and girls of from thirteen, or fourteen, to eighteen years of age are compelled to attend School often by eight o'clock in the morning for private instruction, and then, from nine till half-past four, are engaged in teaching, with only the dinner hour break. Nor do they always get this interval, for, despite Code directions, Managers and Teachers have found it convenient in some Schools to employ the Pupil Teacher in superintending the children who remain at school for dinner. Then, after a day of exacting mental and physical labour, the young Teacher returns home only to resume private study. In School it is no uncommon thing for a Pupil Teacher to have charge of large classes of fifty, sixty, or even, seventy children. What exertion this demands can only be appreciated by those who have attempted the task. Nor are Board Schools much better; there, too, especially in the country districts, the system is frequently worked for all it is worth to save the pocket of the ratepayer."

FAULTY MODE OF SELECTING AND EMPLOYING PUPIL TEACHERS.

The Report of the Committee further states that "the selection of the Pupil Teacher is often faulty. A Head Teacher finds a scholar in the upper standards apt at taking charge of a class in an emergency, gradually the child is continued in the work till he becomes more or less a permanency, and in due time the candidate is presented to the Inspector to be examined for apprenticeship. Far too little regard is paid to the candidate's own education and natural character, whilst the character of the candidate's home and the ability of the parents to adequately maintain the Pupil Teacher are all but ignored. The lack of suitable male candidates has caused many to be taken who are unsuitable in almost every way, and this can bode nothing but evil. No wonder, then, that the system has been found to yield but poor results, and that the complaint is general that the Pupil Teachers teach badly and are badly taught.

DEFECTS OF THE PUPIL TEACHERS' SYSTEM SUMMARIZED.—REMEDIES PROPOSED.

"The defects of the present system may be summarised thus:—1. The Pupil Teacher is overworked in School, and is called upon to do work which, by age and inexperience, he is not qualified to perform, resulting in damage both to the Teacher and the taught. 2. The Pupil Teacher has insufficient time for private study and proper recreation; the syllabus of study being in many respects unsuitable. 3. The pupil is often instructed and supervised by incompetent Teachers and persons of limited education. 4. More or less haphazard selection of candidates.

The remedies proposed by the Committee are:—"The age of admission is to be raised to sixteen for urban schools, and fifteen for rural schools. More care is to be taken that they come from satisfactory homes, and that their homes are such as to offer proper opportunities for private study. They will also be allowed to be employed in those Schools in which the Head Teacher is recommended by the Inspector as qualified to superintend Pupil Teachers. The time for which Pupil Teachers are employed in Schools is not to exceed four meetings a week, in the case of first and second year Pupil Teachers, or six meetings a week, in the case of third, or fourth, year Pupil Teachers. This will mean a double set of Pupil Teachers in each School. The rest of the ordinary school time will be spent at the central class, or in instruction, from the Head Teacher. Pupil Teachers of the first and second year are not to be counted on the school staff, and are only permitted to give certain instruction, but never an original lesson; hence they cannot be given entire charge of a class. Third and fourth year Pupil Teachers may take charge of a class of not more than twenty-five scholars, and will count on the staff. The Pupil Teachers are to receive, when possible, their instruction in central classes, or approved Secondary Schools. These may prepare for either the examinations of the Education Department, or for certain approved University examinations. The annual collective examinations of the first and third year are retained only for those Pupil Teachers who do not attend central classes, whilst success at the Oxford and Cambridge Junior Locals exempts from the second year examinations.

The general effect of these recommendations, when carried into practice, will be that (1) It will raise the status of a Pupil Teacher, for the candidates will be drawn from a higher social class. The increased demands can only be met by those parents who are either in comfortable circumstances, or are willing to make a sacrifice for their child's future benefit. The class which look to their children to become earners at an early age will more than ever be shut out. (2) The standard of education of the Pupil Teacher will be greatly raised and brought more into touch with the University.

The Education Department, in its Report for 1897-98, thus refers to the increased importance of well trained Teachers:

"The importance of the fitting professional preparation of Teachers for their future work is being more widely recognized in all grades of national education; and we are convinced that, in such courses of preparation, stress should be laid on the necessity of a broad basis of liberal culture, as well as on the acquisition of technical skill in the method of actually imparting knowledge."

Mr. P. A. Barnett, Inspector of Training College, in a recent paper on the subject very justly remarked: "We must depend less on curriculum than on the Teacher's missionary spirit and perfection of training to widen the sympathies, the outlook, the understanding—and to set things in their right relations, i. e., to give true perspective."

CHAPTER VI.—CHARACTER AND EXTENT OF RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN BOARD AND VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS.

In a recent retrospective address by the Rev. Dr. Waller, Secretary of the Wesleyan Committee on Education, he thus accounted for the forefront position which the question of Religious Instruction in the Elementary Schools occupied in England. He said:

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TRUCTION

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e said :

"In order to understand our system of Denominational and 'State-aided' Board Schools, which has been so rapidly developed in recent years, a certain knowledge of the past is necessary. It is only with the lamp of history in our hands that we can clearly see how it has come to pass that the three-fifths of the State-aided Schools of the Nation are to-day directly connected with the Religious Denominations. The reason why . . . this is so is to be found in the fact that the Churches were the first to undertake the work."

That notable statesman, John Bright, in one of his addresses, referring to the establishment of Sunday Schools, in 1872, says :—

"Long before the most enlightened statesman cared anything about the education of the children of the masses, the Sunday School Teachers entered upon . . . the work. Out of these Sunday Schools sprang the Day Schools of the people."

When Joseph Lancaster commenced his active educational career in 1798, as the founder of the British and Foreign School Society, he thus referred to the religious element in education, as promoted by him :—

"Above all things," he said, "education ought not to be made subservient to the propagation of the peculiar tenets of any Sect, beyond its own Members. It then becomes undue influence, like the strong taking advantage of the weak. And yet, reverence for the sacred name of God, and for the Scriptures of truth ; a detestation of vice ; a love of veracity ; a due attention to duties to parents, relatives, and society ; carefulness to avoid bad company ; civility, without flattery, and a peaceable demeanor, may be inculcated in any seminary of youth, without violating the sanctuary of private religious opinion in any mind."

The opinion of Pestalozzi, another noted Educator and Educationist, was that—

"Every child needs a religious development. . . . He needs to know how to pray to God in all simplicity, and with faith and love. If this simple religious element does not run through the whole of education, it can have but little influence on the life ; it remains formal and isolated." (In the citadel of the heart it is the 'inner guard'.)

ORIGIN OF THE CONTROVERSY IN REGARD TO RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS.

In 1839, the Committee of the Privy Council on Education was organized, and the Parliamentary Grant for Elementary Education in England was increased from £20,000—first made in 1833—to £30,000.

The necessity of making some provision for the training of School Teachers was felt to be imperative by the Committee of Council, and arrangements were made by that Committee for establishing a well-equipped Normal School, on the basis of "religious comprehension," and open to all, without being subject to any Denominational control. Owing to strong opposition on this latter ground, the Committee of Council was unable to accomplish its purpose, and the scheme failed. The reasons for this failure are narrated by Sir J. P. Kay-Shuttleworth, at that time Secretary of the Education Department, in his evidence before the Duke of Newcastle's Education Commission in 1860-61.*

In his evidence before the Newcastle Commission, Sir J. P. Kay-Shuttleworth said :

"The first controversy with respect to elementary education arose in connection with the proposed Government Normal School, the constitution of which provided that Religious Instruction in it should be divided into 'general' and 'special.' The former

* NOTE.—When the Duke of Newcastle, then Colonial Secretary, was in Upper Canada, with the Prince of Wales, in 1860, he requested Rev. Dr. Ryerson to furnish him with a "Confidential Report on Separate Schools," which he did. This was with a view to learn how the religious question was dealt with in our system. Before leaving for England an Education Commission was, at the Duke's instance, appointed. One of the Commissioners, the Rev. James Fraser, afterwards Bishop of Manchester, was sent to the United States and Canada to collect information on the subject of Education in those Countries. Our intercourse with Dr. (afterwards Sir) J. P. Kay-Shuttleworth,—to whom reference is here made,—personally and by letter, was always both pleasant and most satisfactory, and from him we obtained much valuable information.—J.G.H.

was to consist of such general truths of Christianity, as are common to all Christian Communions in England; the latter was to include 'doctrinal teaching.' . . . About this constitution a very great controversy arose, and it was conceived to be an indication that the Government desired to establish Common Schools for the Country, founded on a like basis of religious equality. The Church of England, in particular, entered a most emphatic protest against a general system of education, founded on such a basis."—In consequence of these discussions, and of strong opposition in both Houses of Parliament, the Government withdrew their scheme of a Government Normal School.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE BRITISH AND FOREIGN SOCIETY SCHOOLS.

In carrying on its active work as an educational agency, the British and Foreign School Society declared :—

"(1) That in all Schools established in connection with this Society the Holy Scriptures, in the authorized version, or extracts therefrom, shall be read and taught daily.

"(2) No catechism, or other religious formulary, peculiar to any Religious Denomination, shall be introduced, or taught, during the usual hours of school instruction.

"(3) Every child attending a Day School shall be expected to attend the particular place of worship, or Sunday School, which his parents prefer."

In an explanatory statement, the Education Committee of the Society states that :—

"As a part of the instruction in the Schools, the Bible is read, and Bible lessons are given. . . . The Teachers take great pains not only to explain and enforce the precepts of the Sacred Volume, but also to make the children love them, and receive them as the guides of their lives. The teaching is not of a controversial kind, and no attempt is made to inculcate the peculiar doctrinal tenets of any class of Christians. No education can be complete unless the child is taught from the Bible to 'Love the Lord his God with all his heart, and his neighbour as himself,' and lastly, that the consciences of all are entitled to respect, and no child ought to suffer any disability because of the conscientious views of the parent."

On the passage of the Forster School Act of 1870, the Society conformed to its requirements in regard to religious observances in Schools, and "the Bible Reading and Bible Lessons had to be put outside of the required hours of secular instruction."

During the controversy of 1893-4, caused by the issue of a Circular by the London School Board, in regard to religious observances in Schools, the Society passed a series of Resolutions on the subject, from which I make the following extracts :—

"(1) The Society reiterates its unaltered conviction, that, for the real benefit of the children, and for such religious and moral teachings as can be given with advantage in the common Day Schools, the intelligent reading and study of the Bible are essential and sufficient.

"(2) The Society's experience for three generations, unvarying amid manifold social and political changes, has abundantly shown that wise and effective Biblical instruction can be given, apart from creeds and formularies, and that with strict regard to the claims of conscience," etc.

In its Report for 1897-98, the Society says :—

"We want our Schools managed in a way that is compatible with observances of the rights of conscience; with respect for parental control and influence; with tolerance as to home arrangements, social proclivities, and political organizations. This education of hand and eye, thought and feeling, reverence and gentleness; this development of physical strength; this raising of mental and moral calibre, is what will get our children to take an intelligent interest in the world and its material and spiritual concerns, and to claim a worthy share in their own progress and their Country's honour, and their Church's activities."

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND SCHOOLS.

When the Church of England adherents of the British and Foreign School Society separated from that Society in 1811, and formed the "National Society," they declared, in their first Report, issued in 1812:—

"That the national religion should be the foundation of National Education, and should be the first and chief thing taught to the poor, according to the excellent liturgy and catechism provided by our Church for that purpose."

The National Society afterwards amplified this statement and declaration, and laid down more fully, as the basis of its religious work in Schools, the following general Rules, to be observed by all National School Managers:—

"(1) The children are to be instructed in the Holy Scriptures and in the Liturgy and Catechism of the Established Church. (2) With respect to such instruction, the Schools are to be subject to the superintendence of the parochial Clergyman. (3) The children are to be regularly assembled for the purpose of attending Divine Service in the parish Church, or other place of worship under the establishment, unless such reasons can be assigned for their non-attendance as is satisfactory to the Managers of the School. (4) The Masters and Mistresses of the Schools are to be members of the Church of England. (5) The Schools are to be periodically inspected by persons appointed either by the Bishop of the Diocese, the National Society, or the Diocesan Board of Education. (6) In case any difference should arise between the parochial Clergy and the Managers of Schools, with reference to the preceding rules, or any regulation connected therewith, an appeal is to be made to the Bishop of the Diocese, whose decision shall be final."

In 1864, the Committee of the Privy Council on Education adopted what was called the "Conscience Clause," to meet the case of the children of Non-conformists in purely Denominational Schools, but the National Society declined to accept it. Six years afterwards this Clause, much amplified, was embodied in the Forster School Act of 1870, and is generally known as the "Cowper Temple Clause" of that Act. It applies to all Schools alike—to the National and all other Voluntary Schools.

In a Letter from the Rev. J. S. Brownrigg, M.A., Secretary of the National Society, in reply to one from me, he says:—

"There is no absolute uniformity about the time when the religious instruction is given in the Schools, but by the Government Regulations it must be given either at the commencement or the close of school time. The almost universal rule is for it to be given for about three quarters of an hour at the commencement of the morning school time. I am sending you, in book form, the Syllabus of a course of lessons in Scripture history and the catechism, etc., which we recommend."

This Syllabus sketches at length a four years' course of lessons in the Old and New Testaments, and a series of lessons on the Catechism, the Creed, the Lord's Prayer and the Ten Commandments. In teaching the Catechism, the Teacher is reminded that "the following points should be constantly kept in mind by him, and frequently brought to the recollection of the children." They are designed to form the key-note of his lessons:—

"The all-seeing eye of God; His love and care; our need of prayer; God loves that we should pray.

"We belong to Christ, because He redeemed us; Christ intercedes for us; the Day of Judgment.

"Our sinful nature; we cannot resist sin without God the Holy Ghost; He is within us; He makes us strong; He helps us to pray; He helps us to learn, and love, and do God's will; we must continually pray for His help.

"Lessons on God and the Holy Ghost should be given fully and with great care. A Teacher can only be enabled to do all this successfully by being earnest and constant in prayer for God's grace; our lessons are impressed by our example."

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE WESLEYAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

In 1841, the Wesleyan Conference adopted a "Plan of Wesleyan Education" which had taken three years to mature, but which had not, from that time, been materially altered. That "Plan" declared that:—

"Wesleyan day Schools shall be of a distinctly religious character, and, as a practical means to realize this important purpose, it was deemed indispensable that:—

"(1) The Bible, in the authorized version only, shall be the basis of all the religious instruction, and a certain portion of every day—at least half an hour—shall be set apart for the devotional reading of the Holy Scriptures, with explanations by the Teacher,* Minister, or duly appointed Visitor, or for catechetical instruction.

"(2) The authorized Wesleyan Catechism shall be used in all our Schools.

"(3) The Wesleyan Hymn book, or other approved Hymn book . . . shall be used; such hymns shall form part of the daily exercises.

"(4) The school duties of each day shall begin and end with prayer."—(Plan of Wesleyan Education.)

In a Note which I received, in reply, from the Rev. Dr. Waller, Secretary of the Wesleyan Committee on Education, he says:—

"Secular instruction . . . fixed by the 'Code,' must last for two hours in the morning and two hours in the afternoon. The religious instruction may be taken either before, or after, the assembling of the School. As a rule, the religious instruction in Wesleyan Schools lasts from 9 to 9.45, and the secular instruction begins at 10 o'clock."

In another note received from the Rev. Dr. Waller, he says:—"The Methodist Connexion has declared that:—

"No national system of education, which shall exclude from the day Schools the Bible, and also religious instruction therefrom, by the Teachers, suited to the capacities of children, will meet the necessities of the Country. . . .

"The attitude of the Wesleyan Conference is, that religious instruction should always be given by the Teacher of the School."

This latter position is fortified by the following extract from the Report of the Royal Commission on Education in 1888:—

"It is of the highest importance that all Teachers, who are charged with the moral training of the scholars, should continue to take part in the religious teaching of the School, and that any separation of the Teachers from the religious training of the School would be injurious to the moral and secular training of the scholars."

Among the regulations in the "Plan of Wesleyan Education" is the following:—

"Every Teacher employed in the (day) Schools, or trained for them, shall be of a decidedly religious character, and in connection with the Wesleyan Methodist Society."

The following is the general scheme of Religious Instruction in the Wesleyan day Schools:—

"The Holy Scriptures: Instruction in the Old and New Testaments. Catechism: No. I. and No. II., explained and committed to memory. Repetition: The Lord's Prayer; the Ten Commandments, selected portions of Scripture, selected hymns. Special lessons: On precepts and emblems, sacred geography, sacred history, etc., on particular texts, Israelitish and Christian institutions."

* In the Summary of the history of Wesleyan Education, 1837-1890, it is stated as a matter of thankfulness . . . that it has never yet been proposed, either in the Committee on Wesleyan Education, or in the Conference, to set aside the method of preparation, whereby persons of decidedly religious character should be duly trained to give . . . (religious) instruction in the Wesleyan day Schools.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE ROMAN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS.

The Roman Catholic Elementary Schools of England and Wales are placed under the direction of a "Catholic School Committee," appointed in 1847, consisting of three—one clerical and two lay—representatives of each of the fifteen Dioceses, and the Vicarate of Wales: President, the Duke of Norfolk. On the Committee there are also the following noblemen:—The Marquis of Ripon, the Earl of Denbigh and Gainsborough, the Lords Herries and Mowbray and Stourton.

The chief function of this Committee, as stated in its Report for 1896, is "to secure, as far as possible, the efficiency of the Roman Catholic Public Elementary Schools by educating a due supply of trained Teachers, which it does in the Training Colleges of St. Mary, for men, at Hammersmith, London, and Notre Dame, Liverpool and the Sacred Heart, Wandsworth, near London, for women."

In Notes received by me from the Rev. Canon Graham, Principal of St. Mary's Training College, in reply to my enquiries, he says:—

"Catholics are treated by the Government, in the matter of education, on a footing of equality with the Church of England and the Nonconformist Bodies. . . . Our grievance is that Board Schools, in which no definite dogmatic religious instruction is given, are treated more favourably than we, in common with other Managers of Voluntary Schools, are, being limited in our means, whereas Board Schools have the rates to fall back upon. In every other respect we are treated well by the Government in the administration of the Code. . . . The Inspectors of Catholic Schools are the same as those for all other Schools, and are appointed by the Governments, being Government Officers."

The Rev. Canon Graham, as requested, has furnished me with the copy of an extended Syllabus of a "scheme of religious instruction in Catholic Elementary Schools." The titles of the subjects of instruction are:—"Prayers, Catechism, Doctrine, Sacred History, Pictures." The classes, for which this very full and elaborate system of religious instruction has been prepared, are:—"Infant class, Confession class, Confirmation class, Communion class, lower Confraternity class, upper Confraternity class." For the middle and upper Schools the classes are:—"Elementary course, divisions one, two and three; middle and higher courses, divisions one and two each."

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE HOME AND COLONIAL SOCIETY'S SCHOOLS.

The educational work of this Society is, as stated in its Report for 1896-97, "centered in two Training Institutions, (with Schools of practice), one of which, the Gray's Inn Road Training College, is aided by Government grants, and is under the inspection of the Education Department, whilst the other; the Ilghbury Hill House, for the training of woman in secondary and kindergarten subjects, is self-supporting, and is entirely unconnected with the Education Department of the Government."

In the Constitution of this Society it is stated:—

"That in order to perpetuate the teaching of sound Christian doctrine within the walls of these institutions, and thus to secure as far as possible its teaching in Schools, having Teachers from the Society, all individuals, whether Teachers, or other Officers, shall sign, in the presence of the Committee, a declaration, setting forth their belief in the great fundamental truths of Christianity, as defined in the doctrinal Articles of the Church of England, and, as to Teachers, pledging themselves that all their religious instructions shall be in conformity therewith."

The Report itself adds:—

"The constant endeavour has been, that every student who leaves these walls shall be well instructed in the faith of Christ Jesus, in the sense in which that is set forth in the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England."

The Managers of Board and Voluntary Schools have alike, the right to determine the kind and nature of the religious instruction to be given to the pupils of their respective Schools. In no case, however, can a Parliamentary Grant be made to these Schools for any such religious instruction, nor unless the law governing this right in both Board and Voluntary Schools be strictly observed.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS, UNDER THE FORSTER ACT OF 1870.

The enactment of this restrictive provision in the Forster Act of 1870 has greatly simplified what had always been, up to that year, a most difficult duty,—that of determining the grants to be made to Denominational Schools, which constantly and persistently violated the terms of the "Conscience Clause" which had been adopted by the Privy Council Committee on Education in 1864, but which, up to 1870, had not the sanction of Parliament.

The Sections of the Forster Act of 1870, which deal with the question of religious instruction in Board and Voluntary Schools, are the 7th, the 14th, the 76th and the 97th. The seventh, and most important of the provisions of this Act, is as follows:—

"Section 7. Every Elementary School, which is conducted in accordance with the following Regulations, shall be a Public Elementary School." . . . "A copy of these Regulations shall be conspicuously put up in every such School, namely:

"(1) It is not to be required, as a condition of the admission, or continuance, of any child in the School, that he shall attend, or abstain from attending, any Sunday School, or any place of Religious Worship, or that he shall attend any religious observance, or any instruction in religious subjects in the School, or elsewhere, from which observance, or instruction, he may be withdrawn by his parents, or that he shall, if withdrawn by his parents, attend the School on any day exclusively set apart for religious observances by the Religious Body to whom his parents belongs. (See section 76 below.)

"2. The time, or times, during which any religious observance is practiced, or instruction in religious subjects is given, at any meeting of the School, shall be either at the beginning, or at the end; or at the beginning and at the end of such meeting; and shall be inserted in a Time Table, to be approved by the Education Department, and to be kept permanently and conspicuously affixed in every School Room; and any scholar may be withdrawn by his parents from such observance, or instruction, without forfeiting any of the other benefits of the School.

"(3) The School shall be open at all times to the inspection of any of Her Majesty's Inspectors; so, however, that it shall be no part of the duties of such Inspector to inquire into any instruction in religious subjects given in such school, or to examine any scholar therein in religious knowledge, or in any religious subject, or book. . . .

"Section 14. Every School, provided by a School Board, shall be conducted . . . in accordance with the following Regulations . . .

"No religious Catechism, or religious formulary, which is distinctive of any particular Religious Denomination shall be taught in the School. . . .

Section 76. When the managers of any Public Elementary School, not provided with a School Board, desire to have their School inspected, or the scholars therein examined, as well in respect of religions as of other subjects, by an Inspector other than one of Her Majesty's Inspectors, such Managers may fix a day, or days, not exceeding two in any one year, for such inspection, or examination. . . .

"2 On any such day, any religious observance may be practiced, and any instruction in religious subjects given at any time during the meeting of the School, but any scholar who has been withdrawn by his parents from any religious observance, or instruction, in religious subjects shall not be required to attend the School on any such day.

"Section 97. The conditions required to be fulfilled by an Elementary School in order to obtain an annual Parliamentary grant shall be those contained in the Minutes of the Education Department.

"(2) Such grant shall not be made in respect of any instruction in religious subjects."

AUTHORITY FOR RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE BOARD SCHOOLS.

In Sir H. Owen's "Elementary Education Acts, 1876-1897 Manual," the Author, in commenting on Section 14 of the Act of 1870, says :—"Where School Boards, being of the opinion that they are not debarred by this 14th Section from allowing the Apostles' Creed to be taught in their Schools, have allowed it to be so taught, the Education Department have not felt themselves called upon to interfere." They have regarded it as a matter within the discretion of the School Board whether the Apostles' Creed shall, or shall not, be taught and explained in their Schools. The Education Department have stated that they consider that School Boards, which provide religious instruction in their Schools, are justified in securing, by inspection and examination of the scholars, information as to the efficiency of the instruction.

"Regulations to the following effect have been adopted in whole, or in part, by a large number of School Boards, with reference to religious instruction, prayers and hymns in their Schools :—

"(1) That, in the Schools provided by the Board, the Bible shall be read, and there shall be given such explanations and such instructions therefrom, in the principles of morality and religion, as are suited to the capacities of children ; provided always, that, in such explanations and instructions, the provisions of the School Act of 1870, Sections Seven and Fourteen, be strictly observed, both in letter and spirit, and that no attempt be made in any such Schools to attach children to any particular Religious Denomination. . . .

"(2) That such explanations, and instructions, as are recognized by the foregoing Regulation, shall be given by the responsible Teachers" of the Schools.

"(3) That, in accordance with the general practice of existing Elementary Schools, provision may be made for offering prayer and using hymns in Schools, provided by the Board at the 'time, or times, when, according to Section Seven of the Elementary Education Act of 1870, sub-section two, 'religious observances' may be practised.

"(4) That the arrangements for such religious observances be left to the discretion of the Teacher and Managers of each School, with the right to appeal to the Board by Teacher, Managers, parents, or ratepayers of the district. . . .

"(5) That during the time of religious teaching, or religious observances, any children withdrawn from such teaching, or observance, shall receive separate instruction in secular subjects. . . ."

Speaking of the character of Religious Instruction in the Board and Voluntary Schools, Sir John Gorst, in submitting to the House of Commons the Education Estimates for 1898-99, said : "Religious teaching in the Schools was of two kinds—historical teaching and the teaching of doctrine. He did not pretend to say that it would be wrong to compare the relative importance of those two kinds of teaching, but, as a rule, Bible teaching in most Schools occupied a great deal more time than the teaching of doctrine. He had expressed doubt whether that part of the teaching which was historical was not better taught in Board Schools than in Voluntary Schools. He entertained that doubt no longer. He had no hesitation in saying that, at any rate, in London, the Bible teaching in Board Schools was so superior to that in Voluntary Schools that there was no comparison between them. These were facts which he might suppress, but could not alter.

For this statement, Sir John Gorst was taken to task by the Archbishop of Canterbury (Dr. Temple) in the House of Lords. His reply, through Lord Salisbury, was that, what he stated was the result of his own conviction, although not based upon official returns.

A voluminous return has recently been issued by the Education Department, containing a detailed account of the religious instruction given in Board Schools in 1895-96. Out of 2,329 of these Schools, only 57 are reported as not having made any provision on the subject.

A very successful effort was made in Winchester in 1891 to confederate, under a composite "Elementary Schools Council," the eleven Voluntary Denominational Schools in that city. This Council is composed of two representatives from each of these eleven Schools—Church of England, Roman Catholics, and Wesleyan—and twenty-two persons, elected by the voluntary ratepayers, forty-four in all. The voluntary rates and subscriptions, etc., are put into a common fund and disbursed to each of the Schools by the Council.

In a special Report on Denominational Schools, prepared in 1897, under the direction of the Minister of Education, I have given particulars of what is practically a similar system, but more comprehensive in its character, which has existed for some years in Poughkeepsie, State of New York. It is identical with the Faribault system promoted by Archbishop Ireland, of St. Paul, Minnesota, as fully explained on pages 200-205 of the "Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada," (1897,) published by the Writer. (See the reference to Archbishop Ireland in the last Chapter, page 63.)

NATURE OF THE OBJECTION TO RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN BOARD SCHOOLS.

Objections of a very indefinite character are generally the ones used by those who object to religious instruction being given in the non-denominational Board Schools of England. The Bishop of Guildford, in a speech delivered at the opening of the new Anglican Schools at Ventnor, in the Isle of Wight, in October, 1898, put his objections to the instruction in a definite form, and said :—

"The Voluntary Schools were inestimably to be preferred to Board Schools. . . . In many cases the Board Schools gave a good secular education, and in London, he believed, the religious education was of a very satisfactory character, as far as it went; but there was always this fatal blot in respect to them, there was no fixity of tenure in religion. Board Schools might give an excellent religious education—they gave the best they could; but they were debarred from using that useful handmaid of religious instruction—the Catechism.

"And they lay under this terrible disadvantage, that, in a Board School, they could not inquire into the character of a Master, or Mistress, or Pupil Teacher. They were not allowed to ask whether a School Master was a Christian or not."

It may be true that, as a matter of official regulation, certain inquiries may not be definitely authorized; but it is not at all likely that Managers of Board Schools would engage a Teacher without knowing something about his character, habits, etc.

CHAPTER VII.—RECENT EFFORTS TO PROMOTE POPULAR EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

A new departure has recently been made by the English Education Department, in the establishment, for the use of students, and others, of an Educational Library and Inquiry Office in Cannon Row, Whitehall. This Library contains about 7,000 volumes on "Pedagogy and the Administration of Education," including a large collection of the Education Reports issued in other Countries. . . . These Reports and Documents are now "available for students visiting the Library." There is also in it "a representative variety of foreign educational magazines."

As the result of this new departure, and as an outgrowth from it, the Privy Council Committee on Education have authorized the issue, by the Chief Officer of the Library, (as Parliamentary papers), of "a series of Special Reports on educational subjects" in various Countries.

The first of this series of Special Reports has just been issued. It extends to 732 pages and contains twenty-six separate Reports, signed by their authors, relating to education in England, Ireland, Belgium, France, Germany, (Prussia, Saxony, etc.), Denmark, Egypt, Spain, the United States, and Manitoba, and Women's Universities in the British Empire and foreign Countries."

A second and third Volume were issued in 1898. These publications are similar, in some respects—but with a narrower range—to the admirable annual volumes issued by the United States Bureau of Education in Washington.

The reason given, in a Parliamentary note, for the publication of these special Volumes, is that of the increased "interest now taken in the comparison of different methods of teaching, and of different forms of school organization," and, therefore, "useful to students of education." Many of the Reports in the Volume are reprinted separately for the convenience of distribution.

THE INCREASED ENGLISH EDUCATION GRANTS FOR 1898-99.

Having obtained a copy of the English "Education Estimates" for 1898-99, I have prepared the following condensed summary of them. While, no doubt, they will prove interesting to many, they will also be a surprise to others who are disposed to object to our yearly increasing grants for education in various Provinces of the Dominion. The annual average increase of these grants in England is from £300,000 to £400,000. The proposed Parliamentary Grants for Education in 1898-99 are as follows:—

For Elementary Day Schools.....	£4,692,155
"Free grant"—to promote free schools, by diminishing fees payable.....	2,303,000
For Evening (Continuation) Schools.....	192,183
Special grant to Voluntary Schools under the Act of 1897.....	621,000
Special grant to Board Schools under another Act of 1897.....	193,000
Education of blind and deaf children.....	18,260
Teachers pensions and gratuities.....	37,160
	<hr/>
	£8,056,758
Training Colleges.....	171,856
Education Department—salaries.....	75,673
Education Department—expenses.....	1,480
School Inspection—salaries.....	166,705
School Inspection—expenses.....	45,010
Special inquiries and expenses.....	2,642
	<hr/>
	£8,520,175
Instruction in Public Elementary Schools and Training Colleges, by the Department of Science and Art.....	69,350
Proportion for instruction in other Schools, by the Department of Science and Art.....	41,000
Parliamentary grants to various Universities and Colleges in England and Wales.....	62,507
Public Education in Scotland.....	1,281,867
Scottish Universities.....	42,000
Public Education in Ireland.....	1,121,734
Endowed Schools, and Queen's Colleges in Ireland.....	5,855
Science and Art Museums, etc.....	748,194
Agricultural Education in Great Britain, (also £7,000; from the Board of Agriculture).....	9,000
	<hr/>
Grand total.....	£11,965,796

In addition to these Parliamentary Grants, the income of the Board Schools from rates in 1897 was £2,325,301, and of the Voluntary Schools from subscriptions, etc., in 1897, was £843,874; total £3,169,175. That sum, with the Parliamentary grants in 1897 of £8,001,338, made a total of £11,170,513 available for the Public Elementary Schools of England and Wales during 1897—apart from the expenditure of £171,856 on behalf of Training Colleges, being a gross total of over fifty-five millions of dollars.

The Gilchrist Educational Trust was founded in 1841 by the late Dr. Gilchrist, "for the benefit, advancement, and propagation of education and learning in every part of the world." . . . Its income is now devoted to the maintenance of scholarships and lectures on scientific subjects for artisans, etc. Formerly Canada shared in the advantages of the Trust, but not, I believe, of late years.

Technical Colleges.—Of these there are several local institutions, such as the Central Technical College, and the Technical Art School at Kensington, and also the Technical Colleges at Finsbury (London), Bradford, Bristol, and Manchester, etc.

ACTIVE MOVEMENT TO PROMOTE SECONDARY AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

In 1886, an Association was formed in England "for the Promotion of Technical and Secondary Education." "Secondary Education," as defined by the Association, is designed "to cover an intermediate region of education, which lies between the Elementary School and the higher Colleges and Universities." The Association further defines its aim to be "to promote Technical, Commercial and Agricultural, Education, and encourage those educational reforms which will improve the capacity, in a broad sense, of all those upon whom our industries depend. It desires:

"(1) To develop increased general dexterity of hand and eye among the young, which may be especially useful to those who have to earn their own livelihood. . . . (2) To bring about more widespread and thorough knowledge of those principles of science and art, which underlie much of the industrial work of the nation. (3) To encourage better secondary instruction generally . . . for those who have to guide our commercial relations abroad, and to develop our industries at home."

This Association has been very active in its efforts to excite public attention to the subject. Sir Henry Roscoe, the Secretary, in a recent Report, says:—

"It is with great gratification that the Executive Committee are able to record a remarkable awakening of public interest and activity in the matter of Secondary and Technical Education." As a result, he cites the "legislative achievements of the passing of the Welsh Intermediate Act of 1889, the Technical Instruction Acts of 1889 and 1891, and the educational clauses of the Local Taxation Act of 1890. . . . The provisions of the Government measure on Secondary Education of last Session were, in many respects, similar to the proposals embodied in the Secondary Education (England) Bill, which this Association promoted in 1892."

In regard to "the Government measure," to which Sir Henry Roscoe refers, the Rev. Dr. Waller, Secretary of the Wesleyan Education Committee, has furnished me with the following information:

"At present, there is no system of Secondary Education under Government control. The late Vice-President of the Committee of Council appointed a Departmental Committee to consider the question. This Committee was superseded by a Royal Commission, appointed in March, 1884. Their Report and recommendations were signed by the Commissioners in August, 1895, and subsequently published (in nine volumes). . . .

The recommendations of the Commissioners may be briefly summarized under five heads, as follows:

"(1) *Central authority*—It is recommended that a [new Education] Department should be created, and that a 'Minister of Elementary Education' should also have charge of the administration of Secondary Education.

"(2) *Local authorities* to be set up in every County and every County Borough with a population of 50,000; special provision being made for London.

"(3) *School Organization*—Arrangements for the better organization of Schools to be left in the hands of the 'local authority.' Existing Endowed Schools, and all other Schools, which provide a Secondary Education, and are more or less of a public character, are to be considered in relation to the needs of the locality. . . ."

(4) and (5) relate to finances and Teachers.

"In the Education Bill brought into Parliament in March, 1896, by Sir John Gorst, (present Vice-President of the Privy Council Education Committee), Clause 12 provides for the creation of 'local authorities' to deal with Secondary Education. The Bill was not acceptable, and was withdrawn.

THE IMPERIAL BOARD OF EDUCATION TO BE A CENTRAL EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY.

"The Duke of Devonshire, however, (President of the Education Committee of Council), introduced a measure on Secondary Education in 1898, as recommended by the Royal Commission. Its consideration was deferred until the Session of 1899. In introducing the subject to the House of Lords, the Duke of Devonshire intimated, that the measure would take a two-fold form. First, a Central Authority would be created, to which would be entrusted the whole duty of managing the Elementary and the proposed Secondary Schools. This Central Authority would be of a very comprehensive kind. It would supersede the present Education Department, and the Committee of the Privy Council on Education, and would be known as "the Board of Education for England and Wales." This Board would consist of "the Lord President of the Privy Council, Her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, the First Commissioner of Her Majesty's Treasury, the Chancellor of Her Majesty's Exchequer, and one other person appointed by Her Majesty the Queen, who shall also appoint a President of the Board. If such President be the Lord President of the Privy Council, then the Queen shall appoint a Vice-President. This Board shall assume all the duties of the present Education Department, and of the Department of Science and Art, as well as certain powers of the Charity Commissioners.

The Duke of Devonshire, in speaking of the Government, and of the local authorities, and, in recommending these important changes, stated that:

"None, so far as he had been aware, had been accustomed to look at educational questions as a whole, or to work together with each other for the co-ordination of educational administration. He did not know whether the President, or the Vice-President of the Council, had ever attempted to place before Parliament a complete, or well-defined, scheme of Elementary Education, but he was quite sure that it had never been the duty of either to place before his Colleagues, or Parliament, any complete and well-defined scheme with the objects with which Secondary Education was concerned.

"Dealing with the present state of the question, he found that, beginning with some small grants for the elementary teaching of the principles of science and art, the Department was now engaged in spending on central Colleges of Science and Art £20,000 a year, and a further sum of £276,000 in class teaching. Local authorities had also been taxing themselves; and over £800,000 of public money had been absolutely placed at their disposal for the same objects.

"There was at the present time no definite line of demarcation between Elementary and Secondary Education. It was impossible to state, with any approach to accuracy, what amount of public money was applied by School Boards to what was practically Secondary Education, but, in addition to the amounts mentioned, Parliament had paid to those responsible for the reorganization of Public Schools a sum of £68,000. To these figures might be added an immense number of private and proprietary Schools all over the Country, a great number of which would be willing, it was believed, to enter into a general educational scheme."

"In recommending the establishment of a Central Authority," the Duke said, that it would be "responsible for Secondary, as well as Primary, Education, but not necessarily the establishment of any system of strict uniformity, such as must exist in any system of Elementary Education. On the contrary, he believed that the system recommended by the Royal Commission, and adopted under the Bill of 1896, whereby the local authorities were given a wide discretion, was practicable. He thought that a Central Authority was becoming an indispensable preliminary to the inauguration of any satisfactory system."

NATURE OF THE PROPOSED HIGHER PRIMARY, (OR SECONDARY), SCHOOLS.

In regard to this movement in favour of "Secondary Education," the practical and technical side of it finds more advocates than does the "higher," or literary, side. The general feeling, however, so far as I can see, appears to be greatly in favour of the adoption in England of the equivalent of the very successful scheme of the "higher primary school" in France.

This "higher primary school" is divided into four sections—"the general, the commercial, the technical and the agricultural." The advocates of this scheme in England urge that it meets the case of the varied tastes and necessities of youths destined, (as nine-tenths of them are,) for industrial life in workshops, the business, or counting, house, the farm, or in commerce. The French Minister of Public Instruction states that the "higher primary school" is "intended to give specialized instruction for individual professions in commerce, or industry, and to develop in youths destined for manual occupation, and the dexterity and the technical information necessary thereto." M. Buisson, a noted French Educationist, emphasizes these words of the French Minister, and adds:—

"That, wherever there may be found a collection of children of the age of twelve years, who intend going in for agriculture, trade, or business, there shall be found at hand an agricultural, industrial, or business school, properly organized, adapted to their requirements, and suitable for helping them to attain the end which they have in view."

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION IN EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

Night schools date back to 1839. In 1861 day School Teachers were first authorized to teach in Night Schools. But, in 1888, a Royal Commission recommended that "the Evening School system should be thoroughly revised," and, in 1890, the system was revised; but, in 1893, it was not only revised, but enlarged, and a system of "Evening Continuation Schools" was authorized, and it was then prescribed by the "Code" that "elementary education should not be the principal part of the education therein given."

In an "Explanatory Memorandum," originally published in 1893, and reprinted in the Special "Code" for these Schools in 1898, it is stated that "the objects contemplated in the Evening Continuation Schools are:—

"To give freedom to Managers of Board and Voluntary Schools in the organization of their Schools.

"To offer to managers and Teachers a wide choice of subjects adapted to the various needs of scholars and districts.

"To suggest, (and herewith provide), both concisely, and in full detail, courses of instruction in these subjects.

"To enable Managers to combine instruction in subjects for which special grants are paid by the State, with instruction in other subjects, for which no such grants are paid, but which it may be, for special reasons, desirable to include in the school curriculum."

These Evening Continuation Schools differ widely in their scope from the ordinary "night" or "evening" schools. They are, in essence and in purpose, designed for higher work, as true "continuation" schools for those who had completed a good primary school education. Formerly the Evening Schools were rather places where young people, who

lacked elementary education could obtain it after day-school age, in the evening, similar in grade to that of the elementary Day School. All this was changed by the "Codes" of 1890-93; and now the object and purpose of the "Continuation School" is development in higher branches of education.

To accomplish this, the "Code" enlarged the area of instruction, which now includes within its scope a variety of subjects, in addition to those prescribed as ordinary "class" and "special" subjects. The schedule attached to the "Code" for Evening Continuation Schools contains two sets of schemes. The first is "adapted to the needs of all Schools, from which it is provided that portions may be selected suitable to the capacity and attainments of the scholars, and to longer, or shorter, school sessions."

The second scheme is proposed to show how those in the first scheme "may be lengthened into a more detailed syllabus." Managers of Schools may, however, construct a syllabus, or "scheme of their own in any one of the subjects, or in any other subject sanctioned by the Department. Such schemes and Time Table of work must be submitted to and approved by the School Inspector at the beginning of a session of the School."

The first or "concise scheme," embrace the following subjects:—

Reading, or Recitation, or both combined.

Letter Writing, or Commercial Correspondence, and Composition, or Theme, Writing.

Reading and Writing combined.

Arithmetic, including Compound Rules and Reduction; Fractions, Household Accounts, Bills of Parcels; Practice; Proportion, in its Application to Interest, Averages and Percentages.

English, Languages and Mathematics, Science Subjects, which, among other things, includes Domestic Science, the Science of Common Things: e. g., the Home, its Fixtures and Furniture, Heating, Lighting, Clothing, Food and Beverages, Cleanliness and Disinfection, Safety from Accidents and Injuries—including "First Aid to the Injured," etc., Precaution Against Diseases.

Chemistry and Mechanics; Magnetism and Electricity; Human Physiology; Hygiene, including various matters; or, as an alternative scheme, that authorized by the St. John's Ambulance Association.

Commercial and Miscellaneous Subjects.

The "Detailed Schemes" are much more elaborate and include the subjects of the "Life and Duties of a Citizen," Ideals . . . of "Representative Government," in its varied phases and functions. Other topics are, "The Empire," "Industrial and Social Life and Duties," Elementary Physiography—(Measurement of Length, Surface Volume, or Bulk); Elementary Physics and Chemistry; Science underlying Domestic Economy and Hygiene; Agriculture; Commercial Arithmetic; Book Keeping; Commercial Geography and History; Vocal Music; Domestic Economy, including the general Subjects of "Food; Air; the Skin; Clothing; Washing; the Meals; the House; Management of Income; Health and Sickness." Each of these general Readings have a number of sub-heads. Manual instruction in Wood and in Metal, etc.

Very full explanatory notes on these subjects are appended to the "Code," and extra grants are made for teaching them.

The necessity for these "Continuation Schools" seems to be more necessary in England from year to year. Their practical equivalent in France are the "higher primary schools," as before mentioned. Both kinds of Schools are confined in each Country to the special purpose of continuing the education of the elementary schools into a higher grade, with a view to develop educated workers—workers for the fields and the farms, for the factory and the workshop.

These "Continuation Schools" of England, of Saxony—where they are largely developed—and of France are designed solely to:—

"Provide an education higher than that of the ordinary Elementary School, but different in character, but especially in duration, from what is termed 'Secondary Education,' whether classical or modern,"—as the industrial necessities of the times demand them.

Except in the country parts of England, the Evening Continuation Schools have been most successful. The Committee of Council on Education, in their Report for 1897-1898, refer to their "increasing usefulness" and to their "doing admirable work." Since 1895, the number of these Schools has increased by over one thousand—from 3,947 in 1895 to 4,980 in 1897—the attendance at them from 270,285 to 358,628, and the Parliamentary Grants to them from £112,084 to £162,158, or over £50,000 in two years.

In order to make these Schools even more efficient than they were, the Education Department, in its Report for 1897-98, states that it has "made a change in the conditions which regulate the admission to Scholars, so that 'no scholar may now be entered, or continue on the Register of an Evening Continuation School, who is under fourteen years of age, unless such scholar is exempt from the legal obligation to attend school; and no Pupil Teacher engaged in a public Elementary School may be registered as a scholar.'"

In the same Report for 1897-98, it is stated that among the subjects for which grants are made by the Department are:

Needlework for Girls and Women.

Shorthand; (studied by 40,882 Scholars).

Vocal Music, which was taken by 32,019 scholars.

The other Subjects follow in the order named, so as to show their comparative popularity in the Evening Continuation Schools:

Book Keeping.

Mensuration.

Domestic Economy.

The Science of Common Things.

Ambulance Work.

Algebra.

Life and Duties of a Citizen.

Human Physiology.

Chemistry.

Magnetism and Electricity.

Elementary Physiography. (Length, Surface and Bulk Measurement.)

Hygiene.

Elementary Physics and Chemistry

Agriculture.

Horticulture.

Botany.

Navigation, etc., etc.

CHAPTER VIII.—SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NEW DEPARTURE IN THE ENGLISH EDUCATION POLICY.

The London *Daily Chronicle*, in commenting on the advanced programme of the English Education Department, as set forth in the Report for 1896-7, says:

"In the preparation of this Report their Lordships have flung all departmental precedent to the winds, and have supplemented the bare record of *fait accompli* with a long introductory memorandum, which is nothing less than a pronouncement on education, filled to the full with the weightiest indications of future policy. Rightly understood, this momentous *démarche* is really only another instance of the Government

yielding to that irresistible tendency of to day, to take the democracy into its confidence. If the Report is remarkable for the expression of policy it contains, the policy itself is more remarkable still. A careful perusal of the points raised, and the manner in which they are treated, shows that this very policy has a striking resemblance to that developed by Sir John Gorst in the speech which he delivered on the Education Estimates. And what makes matters stranger still is, that this time it is not the Vice-President speaking by himself and for himself, but the Report is signed and countersigned by the two chiefs together.

"The first question raised by the Report is the leakage of children over eleven in our primary schools. Sir John called it a 'crucial' matter, and the Report is scarcely less emphatic in its language. It urges the necessity for 'closer inquiry into the causes which explain, however little they palliate, it.' Education cannot be 'satisfactory till this defect has been cured.' And the reasons of it are a disinclination to an agricultural life, and defective administration of the school attendance laws, due to their being no 'effective public opinion behind the elementary Acts' in certain districts. This is only an endorsement of Sir John Gorst, who further reprobated the overwork of half-timers. Their Lordships take up the question of out-of-school employment of full timers. Errand running and caddying at golf may not be 'dangerous trades' for a child, unless they prevent his learning a skilled trade. But their Lordships do not rest here. At all hazards, they wish to dissipate the 'lethargy' that prevails on this question. One cause of the leakage is immediate gain—a palpable hit for the Lancashire half-timers. The anomalies of the law are instanced as another cause. . . . Nevertheless the rural educational authorities, who are the sole authorities for enforcing school attendance . . . are sometimes among those who are anxious to obtain cheap child-labour at certain times of the year. They show an undue leniency in prosecuting contravention.' Here the murder is out! Surely Sir John, on signing the Report must have muttered to himself something about Wisdom and Justification. But their Lordships continue:—'As long as this 'unevenness is perfect' there is little hope of rousing public interest in education.' Therefore, say their Lordships, 'Let there be more light; let people understand that education is part of the national defence,' and then comes an assertion on the ethical tone of Schools, apart from the mere influence of Bible lessons, that must make the clerical friends of the Government uneasy, and indeed, reads perilously like the language used in France by those who defend *l'école laïque*.* What their Lordships say on the vexed question of Country Schools is excellent. They see how much depends on the Teacher: on the duty of making his life a self-respecting and attractive one, and of securing in him a true love of the Country, for great is his influence for good and evil. His aim must be not to produce 'multitudes of clerks, but multitudes of craftsmen,' in scholars 'who do not despise labour, but honour it; who do not regard handicraft as something socially inferior to unskilled service in shop or office.'

CHANGES AND REFORMS IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION.

This forecast of the policy and purpose of the English Education Department is fully borne out by the statement of what has been accomplished by that Department in 1897, as thus summarized in the Report of the Lords' Committee of the Privy Council on Education for the year 1897-98. It says:

"The past year has been, from the point of view of administration, one of the most important in the history of the Education Department. The establishment of

* In a recent address by Sir John Gorst, in Bradford, he spoke with a good deal of emphasis on the problem of the "Derelict Million" of truants. Some decisive steps, he stated, "ought to be taken to deal with that derelict million, but to do that they would require a strong central Department of Government, and strong and energetic local authorities to co-operate with that Department. The mere carrying on of the present law would never succeed in bringing up the attendance of the children to anything like the proper figures." Calling attention to the extreme importance of this derelict million, from the economical point of view, he said "this was the class from which our criminals and paupers were mainly recruited. Between the ages of five and fourteen they were surely reclaimable; but, if nothing was done, they grew up to require an enormous expenditure in police and magistrates and prisons in order to prevent them from preying on society."

Associations of Voluntary Schools, under the Voluntary School Act of 1897; the increased grant to Board Schools; the transference from the Department of Science and Art to the Education Department of the administration of the grants for Drawing and Manual instruction in public Elementary Day Schools; and the further development of the new system of Inspection have taken place.

ILLUSTRATION OF THE VALUE OF PUBLIC DISCUSSION ON EDUCATIONAL MATTERS.

"These changes have not been merely mechanical in their character. They are significant of far reaching movements in public opinion, and are the outcome of prolonged discussion on the principles of educational policy. . . .

"They indicate, though in different ways, the increasing importance which is being attached by the Nation to the financial and educational needs of the various types of Elementary Schools. We are conscious of a striking growth of public interest in the problem of National Education. There are many signs that increasing attention is being given to the aims of the different grades of Schools, to their various curricula, and to the material conditions and methods of teaching, which may best secure and deepen their moral and intellectual influence.

"This growth of public interest has inevitably been accomplished by some controversy; but we believe that the full discussion of educational aims, and of administrative difficulties, will ultimately be found to have conduced to the enlightened development of our educational resources.

QUESTIONABLE RESULTS OF THE OLD SYSTEM OF SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

"It was our aim to relieve efficient Schools and Teachers from the false standard of educational excellence which the old system of examination tended to set up. We believe that a Teacher, who is competent for his duties, and zealous in their discharge, does his work best when he is given freedom in the choice of methods, and liberty to adapt his course of instruction to the needs and abilities of his pupils. The most permanent and valuable results of education are not those which can be elaborately displayed on an annual field-day.

"It is misleading to attempt to measure a Teacher's educational skill, or the more lasting effects of his instruction on the faculties and character of his pupils, by a test which tends to throw the chief stress on the reproduction of a certain amount of knowledge on an appointed day. Such a system inevitably encourages sham, rather than true, education. It sets a premium on kinds of special preparation, which are generally incompatible with the necessarily slow and less showy process of thorough intellectual discipline. Children can be usually made to acquire, for a temporary purpose, a good deal of information which is afterwards quickly forgotten, and leaves behind it little permanent impress or lasting good. . . . A system which makes [preparation for an examination], the chief aim of School work, is hurtful to the true efficiency of educational effort. It assesses its merits by a false standard. It induces superficial and fleeting excellence.

CHARACTER-FORMING INFLUENCES OF A GOOD SCHOOL.

"The character-forming influences of a good School are so manifold that undue concentration of effort on one outcome of efficient instruction tends not only to throw into the shade much that is most valuable in itself, but indirectly to deter the Teachers from giving the due measure of attention to other essential parts of their work. A School is a living thing, and should be judged as a living thing, and not merely as a factory, producing a certain modicum of examinable knowledge."

SUCCESS OF THE NEW SYSTEM OF SCHOOL INSPECTION IN ENGLAND.

In referring to the success of the new system of School Inspection and its effect on Teachers and Schools, the Report of the Privy Council Committee on Education for 1896-97, proceeds :—

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"We note with satisfaction that the Teachers are proving themselves worthy of the trust which is placed in them; that the relations between them and the Inspectors have become more cordial; that the mechanical form of teaching, induced by a more mechanical method of examination, are tending to disappear; that the Teachers, relieved from the nervous anxiety inseparable from the formal test of an official examination (of the scholars) . . . are more at liberty to improve their daily methods of instruction. . . .

"The new methods permit the School Inspectors to see the Schools in their work-a-day dress, and to form a more accurate judgment of their daily conditions. They permit many sides of school life to be watched with greater exactitude and care, and direct attention to many subjects upon which our knowledge was previously somewhat hazy and uncertain. A searching light has been thrown upon certain aspects of school method and administration, for which the old system had provided no proper test."

In the next succeeding Report of the Education Department for 1897-98, it is stated that:—

"The New System of inspection aims at securing a proper test for all sides of the work of a School. . . .

"The visits of inspection are, as a rule paid without notice, in order that the Inspectors may see the School under its normal conditions, and thus form an accurate judgment on its habitual state. . . . The new system of inspection throws upon [Managers of Schools], and upon others concerned a certain increase of responsibility, because it has become more than ever necessary for them to secure that, at proper intervals during the school year, steps are taken to test the progress of each child, and to ascertain what measure of accuracy he has gained. But the provision of these tests is a proper and necessary function, if those locally responsible for the welfare of the Schools and the task of providing them is likely to add to the reality and effectiveness of School management."

FREEDOM IN THE TEACHER'S WORK, UNDER THE NEW SYSTEM OF INSPECTION.

"Along with a more general acknowledgment of the need for freedom in the Teacher's work, and of necessary distinctions, as well as in the curricula of various types of Schools, as in their administrative relation to the State, there has arisen a deeper feeling of the necessary inter-connection between the several parts of our educational system, and of the profound importance of a high, but wisely adjusted, standard of educational efficiency to the welfare of the Nation at large. . . .

"The removal of unnecessary limitations on the Teacher's choice of methods has been followed by a remarkable and salutary growth of interest in educational problems. . . . The reports which we receive from the Inspectors as to the working of the new system of inspection are encouraging and satisfactory."

CHAPTER IX.—DEFECTS IN THE ENGLISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

In his speech, in submitting the Education Estimates in the House of Commons on the 17th of June, 1898, Sir John Gorst, Vice-President of the Privy Council Committee on Education, dealt critically with the English Education System as it at present exists. He said:

"With the amount now to be voted by the State, voluntary contributions, and the amount contributed by rates, the sum to be spent on Elementary Education in the course of the current year in England and Wales would be £11,690,000 and that he regarded as an earnest of the conviction of the people that education was a National necessity, and that the Country depended for its greatness as much upon the intelligence of an instructed population as upon fleets and armaments."

Sir John Gorst then proceeded to point out the defects in the working of the English Elementary School System. He said:—

"1. The first was the early age at which children left school. This was the great obstacle to elementary education. The compulsory school age ceased at eleven,* but the standard of exemption depended upon local by-laws.

"All standard exemptions," Sir John in his speech, then proceeded to say, "were bad in principle. At the age of thirteen the operation of all such by-laws ceased, and the child reverted to the statute law, which required the passing of the Fourth Standard. Of 600,000 children at school, between the ages of ten and eleven, 20,000 left at eleven forever, and between 50,000 and 100,000 became half-timers; at twelve 85,000 more disappeared; at thirteen 289,000 disappeared; after fourteen there were only 48,000 left at school—the result being that of those who left at the earlier ages everything they had learnt was very soon wiped out of their minds." He believed that until the Education Department took the matter in hand and raised the age for leaving to thirteen a great deal of the education given would be wasted, and the tall talk of competing with other Countries in education, under the existing condition of things, was absurd.

"2. Another obstacle to the effectual expenditure of the money which the Country was willing to vote for education was the irregularity of attendance, not to speak of the failure of our system to get all the children of the county on the school books. It was estimated that there were 7,924,128 children who ought to be on the books of some school, while the actual number was only 5,509,845, and the percentage was substantially declining. Not only was the law at fault, but the administration of the law was extremely loose. Irregular attendance inflicted the greatest possible injury upon voluntary education, because it not only injured the child, but also the School."

This subject is attracting a good deal of attention in England. Truancy is a great and growing evil there. Sir John Gorst, speaking of truants, (see page 37), calls them the "derelict million," while popularly, they are known, in England, as hooligans." In a recent discussion on the subject in Exeter Hall, London, the President of the National Union of Teachers, stated that the 750,000 children on the books of the London Schools were composed of three groups—viz., two-thirds regulars, one-sixth casual irregulars, and one-sixth chronic irregulars. The machinery for enforcing compulsion existed almost entirely for the chronic irregulars. In Glasgow the attendance was 89 per cent., in London 81 per cent.; or that of 750,000 children on the register 145,000 were absent every time the London Schools were open. It was also pointed out that of the persons convicted in England and Wales in 1898, 20.9 per cent. were absolutely illiterate, and 62.6 per cent. were only able to read and write imperfectly; while there was indisputable evidence that the "Hooligans" were the truants and other ill-governed children, who were never brought under the disciplinary influences of a public school. A proposal was subsequently agreed to that, as the present system of compulsion and prosecution had, for various causes, failed, a special court for truant cases be established, with special magistrates, to preside in them, be appointed.

"3. The next obstacle to education was that children frequently attended school in a condition unfit to receive instruction. There was, in the first place, the whole army of half-timers, many of whom were worked for unconscionably long hours, and there were also children in full attendance who worked both before and after school hours. Of course, those children when they were at school were not in a fit condition to receive instruction. There were also children who came to school starving, and to tempt to inculcate education into their minds was not only waste of time but cruelty.

INFERIORITY OF VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS IN LARGE TOWNS.

4. The next obstacle to education was the inferiority in great towns of the Voluntary Schools. He considered that the maintenance of Voluntary Schools was of the greatest importance to the country on religious and educational grounds, but he was convinced that voluntary schools could only continue to exist upon the condition that they were made thoroughly efficient.

* The school age in Ontario is from five to sixteen years. Not compulsory, however.

The correctness of this statement of Sir John Gorst was amply verified by the result of the junior County Scholarship examinations in 1898. These examinations are almost exclusively attended by children from the public Elementary Schools of London. The result of this examination shows how very superior the instruction given in the Board School is to that given in the Voluntary Schools of London. The following is the comparison in tabular form :

	Board Schools.	Voluntary Schools.
Schools sending children	280 out of 458, or 61 per cent.	89 out of 509, or 17.5 per cent.
Number of entries	3,243	445
Entries per 1,000 in average attendance	11.8	3.7
Number of passes	1,601	183
Proportion of passes to entries	49 per cent.	41 per cent.
Number of scholars	554	44
Proportion of scholars to entries	17 per cent.	10 per cent.

These percentages are remarkable for their contrasts, as are also the numbers of those who passed the examination.

5. Another point to which Sir J. Gorst drew attention was the inferiority of rural schools to urban schools, at the same time that they were more costly ; and, until they got an area of management more like that of the County Councils, it would be hopeless to expect any great improvement.

6. The next obstacle to education was the want of trained Teachers, and means must be taken to obtain a better supply.

7. Another obstacle was the want of an organized system of Secondary Education, and if we were to hold our own in the industrial competition of the future we must have workers and trainers as well equipped as the workers and trainers of other countries. Open doors for our commerce were useless unless we were sufficiently well trained to take advantage of them. Reform of education must begin with the elementary schools, otherwise the Technical Institutions and Commercial Colleges would fail for the lack of properly trained boys and girls to take advantage of them.

(NOTE.—I have gone more fully into this matter in the last Chapter.)

LOCAL CONFLICTING EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS A GREAT DRAWBACK.

Sir John Gorst, in a subsequent speech, during the "Parliamentary Recess," thus pointed out the great difficulty which the Government had experienced in reconciling local jealousies, and in harmonizing conflicting interests, as well as in dealing practically and intelligently with the Secondary Education question. He said :

"Now-a-days, a great deal was heard about the reform of Secondary Education. There were two kinds of reformers. In the first place, there were the men who would only aim at that which was absolutely perfect. Now, all schemes of ideal perfection required the interference of the Government, or of Parliament. Education, as a Parliamentary subject, was flaming with party hatreds and with religious intolerance ; and Parliamentary Governments, which must, after all, set before themselves, as one of their first objects, abstinence from exciting the animosity of any political party in the constituency, were not at all disposed to touch it. Then, there were the reformers, who tried to make the best of things as they were, and he confessed that, in education, he belonged to that class of reformers. They took the law as it stood, and tried, by mutual agreement, to make education better. There was no difficulty in any City, or County, of England, if the people engaged in Education would only come together and agree upon a joint scheme for the general benefit of the District. . . .

"County Councils, acting under the Technical Education Acts, unfortunately had no rivals. There was no one in most country districts who troubled his head much about Education. . . . But, in populous places, like the County of London, and in the great City Boroughs, it had pleased Parliament to create two almost rival authorities. It was of no use lamenting the fact, because neither could, by any possibility, be got rid of. There could only be unity and concord in Secondary Education by those two authori-

ties coming to terms and making an agreement together. The School Boards of England had no less than sixty Schools of Science, besides eighty Science Classes. . . . In creating them, the School Boards might have been acting without statutory authority, but they had certainly been acting in accordance with the wishes of their constituents. It would be madness on the part of any educational reformer to do anything to destroy, or damage, those Schools and Classes, and it would be extremely foolish to endeavour to take them out of the hands of those who had established them, and were maintaining them so well."

The Duke of Devonshire fully experienced all of these difficulties in introducing his long promised Bill on Secondary Education. He had, therefore, to cut the "Gordian Knot" by curtailing the powers of local conflicting authorities, and transferring most of them to a strong, Central National Board of Education. He said that he "had great doubts whether it would be wise to attempt to constitute local authorities with well-defined powers, without the preliminary re-organization of a Central Authority. If they had known the difficulties they would have had to encounter between the Counties and the County Boroughs, on the one hand, and the small urban authorities on the other, they would have seen that those authorities could not have done very much in re-organizing the educational arrangements of their Counties. They would have had to deal with the School Board, with the Managers of the Science and Art Department, with the Governors of Schools, under Schemes of charitable endowments, and with Schools under private management. Over each proposal they would have had to enter into correspondence with the Education Department, the Science and Art Department, with the Governors-Commissioners; and none of these Departments, so far as he was aware, had ever been accustomed to look at educational questions as a whole. . . ."

The Duke of Devonshire further said that, owing to these local difficulties in the case of the proposed Secondary Schools, the Government . . .

"Proposed to create a Central Educational Authority. At present, the President of the Council, or the Vice-President, was, for any purpose, the Minister of Education, but under him were virtually two distinct powers, the Education Department and the Department of Science and Art. The Government proposed to bring these two Departments together, probably under the control of one permanent centre. It was proposed to put an end to the Committee of Council, and to the office of Vice-President of the Committee of Council, and to create a Board of Education on the Model of the Board of Trade, the Local Government Board, and the Board of Agriculture. (See Chapter VII.)

EVILS OF THE PUPIL-TEACHER SYSTEM IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

The Pupil-Teacher system of England is the legitimate outgrowth of the Monitorial System of Bell and Lancaster. In its early simple Monitorial form, it did not affect the *role* of the "Teacher," as we understand that word. Besides, what Monitors taught in the days of Bell and Lancaster was little more than the Alphabet, Spelling and the elementary forms of Arithmetic. Now,—and until the new Regulations on the subject came into operation,—it was "no uncommon thing," (as stated in the Report of the Commissioners on the subject), "for a Pupil-Teacher to have charge of large classes of fifty, sixty, or even seventy, children." . . . "Small School Boards find in the Pupil-Teacher a cheap and ready means of supplying the School staff . . . and exact an amount of child labour, which, in many cases, is little less than white slavery." It can be easily understood that, under such a miserable system of so-called economy, the entire teaching standard, in many English Schools, is so lowered, that it ceases to be a means of education, in any true sense of the term. It has also developed in some School Boards what may be termed: "a penurious greed," to get work of a very inferior grade at the lowest of cheap rates, and then pretend that they have complied with the conditions and requirements of the Code, and, as a consequence, claim the Grant, as if the work done was good and *bona fide*. Truly, as the Commissioners say, "the system has been worked for all that it was worth."

In a recent published Letter (November, 1898,) from Mr. J. H. Yoxall, M.P., on the subject of "Child-Teachers in the Schools," he said :—

"It is unfortunately only too true that the staff of Schools in Great Britain and Ireland is very largely composed of juvenile, and other imperfectly qualified, Teachers. One finds that there were, at the date of the latest return in England, (in round numbers), 41,000 Certificated Teachers, 16,000 Uncertificated Assistant Teachers, 20,000 Pupil Teachers, and 11,000, (Code Article 68) Teachers (who are *inferior* in qualifications to Pupil Teachers, as a rule). The corresponding figures for Wales were 2,500, 1,300, 2,200, 780. We are perpetually dinning away in the public ear regarding this great difficulty in our Schools, but the argument of the purse is too strong for us."

ILL EFFECTS OF TOO MUCH ORAL TEACHING IN SCHOOLS.

In his Report, of 1897, to the Educational Department, the Rev. T. W. Sharpe, C.B., Her Majesty's Senior Chief Inspector of Schools, thus points out, as another defect in the English scheme of Education, the ill effects upon scholars of excessive oral teaching. He says :—

"We all deplore the absence of a well-formed, self-reliant habit of continuous and concentrated thought among our older scholars. I believe this may be attributed, in a large degree, to the excessive amount of oral teaching, originating in a well-meant, but unwise attempt on the part of the Teacher, to level the rough way of knowledge, and to remove all difficulties from the pupil's path. It may be well, therefore, to call attention to the necessary limitations imposed on oral teaching . . . by the weariness that continuous talking causes to young scholars, who are naturally restless and require continuous employment rather than continuous thought.

"It is well that in all lessons there must be a certain amount of oral explanation, but, by skilful use of the black-board, and, by the omission of all useless digressions, which often issue only in losing sight of the real purpose of the lesson '(the evil)' may be reduced to a minimum . . . The present excessive amount of oral teaching should, for all these reasons, be diminished. . . . Oral teaching is as essential an accessory in all subjects as the black-board is, but an excessive amount of oral lessons proper, *i.e.*, lessons,—in which a continuous lecture is given, tends to diminish that exercise of mental effort in the scholar, which is essential to the formation of sound habits of thought.

"I would, therefore, suggest to all Teachers to avoid unnecessary talking . . . and unnecessary digression in the course of a reading lesson . . . and also exposition on the Black-board of individual mistakes in writing, when the work of the whole class is suspended to listen to the Teacher's corrections, and that 'thorough teaching,' as it is called, which requires that every step in the process should be laboriously brought within the comprehension of the duller member of the class. . . . County Council lecturers have discovered that oral teaching to uneducated adults is almost worthless."

The Chief Inspector then quotes the opinion on the subject of several experienced men. One of them said :

"There is too much oral teaching. Many Teachers seem to think they are not doing, their duty unless they are talking perpetually . . . Others, he says, "resort to nagging, when there is nothing else to be said." Another said : "Oral teaching is overdone; there is nothing else," and then proceeds to give examples to support his statement*

*In the *Journal of Education for Upper Canada*, I inserted in the June number of 1865, an article from the English *Pupil Teacher* on "The Teacher as a Talker." The objection was urged, as in the English Schools of to-day, that there was generally too much talking by the Teacher in a School. The article contains some admirable hints on the subject. In conclusion, the writer referring to discipline, quotes the inspired words of Solomon : "Words fitly spoken are like apples of gold in pictures of silver," and says : "If there be any place where such pictures should be hung, it is in the School Room . . . Oh, the power of silence and the force of a motion or a look ! the pressure of a quiet, self-reliant reserve force upon a school."

CHAPTER X.—TEACHERS' AND OTHER EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS IN ENGLAND.

In addition to the College of Preceptors, there are several organizations of Teachers which have a reorganized status in England, and which exercise a good deal of influence on their profession, and, more or less on school legislation. These Associations are :—

The Incorporated Association of Head Masters, organized in 1890, and consists of nearly 400 members, who are recognized Head Masters of Secondary Schools, in "which a majority of the pupils are receiving an education higher than in an elementary" one.

The objects of the Association are :—“(1) To facilitate the interchange of views and information on all school matters, e.g., teaching, examinations, scholarships, internal management and organization generally; (2) to influence public bodies connected with education, and, further, to watch, and, if necessary, to suggest legislation on educational matters.”

In the Report of the Association for 1897 it is said that, “considerable interest has been aroused in the House of Commons with reference to the work and aims of the Association, and Members of Parliament are more widely awake than they were to the claims of Secondary Education on their consideration. Primary education has now been dealt with in separate Acts. Outside Parliament, Secondary Education is coming to be more generally recognized as a matter of vital importance to the welfare of the Nation.”

The National Union of Teachers was established in 1870. The most important objects of this union of Teachers are :—“(1) To unite together, by means of local associations, school Teachers throughout the kingdom, in order to provide a machinery by which they may give expression to their opinions, when occasion requires, and may take united action in any matter affecting their interests; (2) to afford to the Education Department, to the Science and Art Department, to School Boards and to other educational Bodies the benefit of the collective experience and advice of Teachers on practical educational questions; (3) to improve the general education of the Country, by seeking to raise the qualifications and status of School Teachers, and by opening out a career to the best qualified members of the profession; (4) to watch the working of the Education Acts, to promote the insertion of such new articles in the Code of Regulations as may from time be found necessary, in the interests of public education, and to secure the removal of such Regulations as are detrimental to the cause of educational progress; (5) to secure the representation of the scholastic profession in Parliament; (6) to seek to have the pension Regulations revised and restrictions removed; (7) to establish provident, benevolent and annuity funds, for the benefit of the scholastic profession,” etc.

The Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland was incorporated in 1885. The chief objects of this Guild are :—To form a body which shall be thoroughly representative of all grades of Teachers, and shall be able to speak with knowledge and authority on all matters of education, and with this view, first, to facilitate the interchange of thought and co-operation amongst those who are actively engaged or interested in education, and, secondly, to circulate information regarding educational methods and movements in England and elsewhere; thirdly, to promote and assist the establishment of Educational Libraries, and of central meeting places, where School Books and Apparatus may be exhibited, and information on educational matters obtained and exchanged,” etc.

The Society of School Masters is for the promotion of special interests.

The Froebel Society. This interesting and useful Society was formed in 1874, for the purpose, (as its constitution states), of promoting co-operation among those engaged in kindergarten work, of spreading the knowledge and practice of the system, and of maintaining a high standard of efficiency among kindergarten Teachers. It was incorporated in 1891. Its work is chiefly promoted by means of lectures, discussions, public meetings and publications. Examinations of those who attend the lectures are held, and Certificates granted to successful candidates as “kindergarten Teachers.” The Society has issued a series of regulations for the use of Inspectors of kindergartens, in regard to premises, arrangements, staff, etc.

At a recent meeting of this Society, the Secretary of the Education Department presided, and stated that, "the Department had recognized the Certificate of the Society, for certain purposes in connection with Elementary Schools. The Society, (he stated), had done much to promote the happiness of children and, without happiness, there could be no true education." At this meeting a Froebelian Syllabus was drafted for the use of elementary School Teachers.

The *National Froebel Union* is an examination body, supplementary to, and apparently acting in concert with, the Froebel Society. Its syllabus of examination is quite an extensive one, and covers a wide range of subjects. Periodical examinations are held by a representative Board at important centres, and Certificates granted accordingly. The life and labors of Froebel and Pestalozzi form distinct subjects of examinations, and success in answering questions in regard to them is considered to be very desirable in the granting of Certificates.

CHAPTER XI.—INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN CONTINENTAL EUROPE

This general subject opens up too wide a field for me to deal with in this Report. I shall, therefore, only refer to its progress in some of the smaller European States, so far as it reacts on English Schools, reserving the chief part of my remarks in regard to Germany to the latter part of Chapter XIII., where I deal with it, as affecting Industrial Education in England.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN DENMARK.

One of the special reports published in the first volume of papers on Education by the English Education Department is on the recent educational progress in Denmark by Mr. J. S. Thornton.* In that report Mr. Thornton says:—

"Education there is, to some extent, private, rather than governmental, but of late years there has been a good deal of educational progress made."

Of the more practical and industrial type Mr. Thornton states that:—

"Scattered over the country parts of Denmark, often at some considerable distance from a railway station, are sixty-five adult boarding Schools, or residential Colleges, attended by students of the peasant, or yeoman, class for the most part. . . . The young men attend from November until March, or April, and the young women during May, June and July. . . . There are besides these sixty-five Peoples' High Schools, five Agricultural and two Horticultural Schools, on similar lines, as well as seven Schools which are partly high and partly agricultural Schools. At these seventy-nine Schools, about 6,000 men and women from humble homes receive instruction every year. . . . In most of the eighty-eight Technical Schools in the country towns, there are Evening Schools for those requiring technical instruction.

"Besides the elementary Schools there are Secondary and Latin schools. (These latter are of two kinds—Latin proper, and Real Schools), besides Continuation Schools," etc.

MODE OF TEACHING DRAWING IN GERMANY.

Sir Edmund Verney in his article in the *Nineteenth Century* for July, 1898, on "Rural Education," thus explains the method of teaching drawing in Germany:

"Drawing, by the lower standard, is encouraged with the best results. It is brought into every branch of study that is possible. In Botany the student draws leaves,

*There are other special Reports in that Volume relating to "House-wifery Schools . . . in Belgium, and to various other subjects of interest. I have only made brief extracts from this Volume by way of illustration, and comparison with the Schools of England on striking points. The Department has recently received two additional Volumes of these "Special Reports on Educational Subjects"—in all forty-one documents. In this respect the Department of Education in England is following in the footsteps of the United States Bureau of Education in Washington, which, for years, has issued a large number of suggestive Reports and papers of very great interest and value to educationists.

plants and flowers ; in Geography he draws maps and plans ; in Arithmetic he draws diagrams and divides them up ; in Geometry he draws designs ; in Object lessons he draws the objects studied, or he draws a collection of objects, all he can think of, relating to some one subject, or, for instance, the garden, the field, or the wood," etc.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IN SAXONY, AND FURTHER DEVELOPING SCHOOLS.

An interesting Report has recently been made by the United States Consul at Chemnitz upon the "further developing" Schools of Saxony. The wealth and industrial greatness of Saxony is shown by her success in competing in all parts of the world in textile tools and machines, a success no doubt largely due to her very complete System of Education. Notwithstanding that children are at present kept at school until fourteen, and that there are numerous industrial and higher Technical and Commercial Schools, attendance at the "further developing" Schools, either at certain hours in the early mornings, or on afternoons in each week, has now been made compulsory for the young people who have graduated in the Elementary Schools. Manufacturers, merchants, etc., are made responsible for the attendance of boys in their employment, and the lads take up subjects of study, which have a special bearing on the trade in which they are engaged.

THE SLOYD (MANUAL TRAINING) ASSOCIATION IN ENGLAND.

Closely allied to the objects of the "Association for the Promotion of Technical and Secondary Education," are those of the "Sloyd Association." (Sloyd is an Anglicized Swedish word (*slöjd*), signifying 'skill, or dexterity, of hand,' and *sloeg*, an adjective, meaning skilful, or dexterous, from which we get the English word 'sleight,' in sleight of hand.") In Sweden, the word may be applied to any system of instruction which aims at giving increasing dexterity of hand to children, as in the case of kindergarten Schools.

In England, the Sloyd Association was formed with a view to emphasize the necessity for manual training in schools, and to present for adoption in them of a simple and systematized plan of industrial, or manual, work, in the shape of useful articles called "models," in which "rounded work and the square work of the carpenter are duly alternated, and each model introduces . . . some new tool or fresh exercise. The chief tools used are the saw, the plane, the chisel, with the knife—the latter as the original and initial tool."

In 1895 the Scotch Education Department deputed Mr. J. Struthers, one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, to inquire into and report upon the Sloyd system of Manual Training, as practised at Naas, near Gothenburg, in Sweden, where the system originated. His Report, published by the Scotch Education Department, is a most interesting and valuable document. The Education Department of Ireland has also taken evidence on the subject. The President of the Sloyd Association in England is the Hon. Lyulph Stanley, and the Treasurer, Sir John Lubbock.

CHAPTER XII.—MISCELLANEOUS MATTERS RELATING TO SCHOOLS.

There are a few features of the English School System to which I have not referred, but to which I shall do so briefly here :

Standards.—"There are seven standards in the English Elementary School "Code," elaborated into a number of "Schedules."

Compulsory Education.—The 74th section of the Forster School Act of 1870 authorizes School Boards to make by-laws, requiring parents to cause their children of not less than five, or more than thirteen, years of age, to attend School for a prescribed period, unless there is some reasonable excuse for not doing so, under a penalty of a fine of five shillings for each offence. The same Act authorizes the School Board to enforce by-laws on the subject. The Act of 1876 provides for the appointment of a

local "school attendance committee" to deal chiefly with the cases of children employed in Factories, and known as 'half timers.' In case the Board, or the Local Attendance Committee, fail in their duty in this matter, the Education Department is authorized to practically deal with such cases.

Backward Children in Schools.—The Department has revised the system of dealing with very backward children in Schools, so as to have them separately and specially treated.

Feeble-Minded Children.—In 1897, the Department appointed a Committee to inquire into the existing system for the education of feeble-minded children, and to suggest improved plans.

Free Schools.—Under the operation of the Grant-in-aid, so as to do away with School fees, there were in 1897-98 in England and Wales 16,912 (out of 19,958) "free Schools" in England, "attended by 4,771,897 free scholars."

School Libraries.—There are only 933 School Libraries in England and Wales. But the Education Department has issued instructions to Inspectors to seek to promote their further establishment.

Commercial Education is felt in England to be a prime necessity. The official Code provides for it, under the head of Bookkeeping, Commercial Arithmetic, Geography, and History. In speaking of the necessity of a better system of Commercial Education, Sir John Gorst strongly urged those who had to do with this subject, viz., the County and Borough Councils, the School Boards, the Trustees of Endowed Schools, and of the great Charities, to sit down together at a sort of "Round Table Conference," when they would be able, in nearly every case, to arrive at a common solution of the difficulty, as it was now recognized that, in order to maintain British supremacy in Commerce and Trade, we must have a better system of Commercial Education."

In his speech, urging the establishment of the University of Birmingham, (as given in Chapter XIV.,) Mr. Chamberlain spoke strongly in favor of the institution in that University of a "Faculty of Commerce."

It was only quite recently that Mr. James Bryce, M.P., formally opened a School of Commerce, established by the City Council of Liverpool. He stated that it was now fifty years since there had been a complete elaborate institutions established in Germany, France and Belgium, for the purpose of giving a good commercial education. . . . The extreme complexity of modern commerce had made special knowledge on the subject a national necessity.

Education of Farmers' Sons.—This subject is attracting a good deal of attention in England and provision has been made in the Departmental Code for instruction in Agriculture, and also in Horticulture.

Industrial Schools.—School Boards are authorized to establish Local Industrial Schools, or to aid in their maintenance. They can also appoint officers to enforce by-laws in regard to the sending of children to these Schools.

Shorthand and Typewriting.—The "Code" prescribing a course of instruction in "Evening Continuation Schools," provides for the teaching of "shorthand." The London School Board have, in addition, introduced the subject of typewriting into the Schools of the metropolis, which has proved to be extremely popular, and already there are nearly two hundred of these machines in use, at a cost of from \$50 to \$60 each.

Savings Banks.—Since 1881, Savings Banks are a feature of social economics in the Public Elementary Schools of England. There are now in operation 1,306 of these Banks. Their introduction into the Elementary Schools was strongly pressed upon the attention of the local School Authorities by the Education Department, on the ground that they promoted thrifty habits. The Department very justly remarked on the subject that:—

"In mature years it is often found difficult to acquire this knowledge, and still more difficult to apply it in practice. But, in a School much may be done to render its application easy to children. Simple lessons on money . . . on the relations of skill,

prudence, and knowledge to industrial success, and on the right ways of spending and saving, may be made very intelligent and interesting to the young.*

These promoters of local thrift and economy were introduced into Upper Canada thirteen years before the Education Department in England made a move in favour of their introduction into the Schools of that Country.

Corporal Punishment.—In consequence of complaints having been made to the Education Department of the infliction of Corporal Punishment in Schools by pupil Teachers, Assistants, and even Managers, the Department has issued an order, in the shape of a "Minute," directing that, wherever necessity arises for resorting to this sort of punishment, it must be administered by the Head Teacher only, and then, that the fact must be entered in the School Log Book.

School Premises.—The Education Department has issued a series of elaborate instructions in regard to the planning and fitting up of Public Elementary Schools and School Houses and Teachers' Residences.

Stone-throwing.—In 1875, and now again (in February, 1898), the Education Department has issued a Circular to School Managers "on the serious mischief that results from the pernicious practice of stone-throwing," which, in a recent case, resulted in the death, under most painful circumstances, of an experienced Engine Driver, who died in consequence of injuries caused by a stone thrown from a railway bridge which his train was passing. . . . Managers of Schools are therefore requested to caution children seriously against the practice of mischievous, or reckless, stone-throwing, and to point out to them the disastrous consequences that may ensue. . . .

The Department also states that "on previous occasions it had requested Managers to endeavour to check the practice of stone-throwing at telegraph wires, insulators, and Railway trains, as injury caused by such conduct renders boys liable to imprisonment, and, perhaps, flogging."

[I insert the substance of these official circulars because the reckless and dangerous practice of stone-throwing at trains and into private grounds, etc., is not at all confined to England.]

Nature of School Grants.—In a memorandum prepared by Mr. M. E. Sadler, (who is in charge of the Educational Library at Whitehall), he thus sums up what is being done financially by the Government to promote Technical, Commercial, and Industrial Education in England and Wales:—

"Grants of varying amounts, and in aid of different forms and grades of Industrial and Commercial education, are at present made by the State, through the following Departments:—The Treasury, the Education Department for England and Wales . . . the Department of Science and Art, the Board of Agriculture, and, in so far as they contribute towards the Industrial and Technical instruction given in special types of Colleges and Schools, by the India Office, the Admiralty, and the Home Office."

Naval and Military Training.—The training of naval cadets takes place at Dartmouth (Devon), on H.M.S. Britannia, and at Queen's Ferry, Scotland, on H.M.S. Caledonia; that of Officers of the mercantile marine on H.M.S. Worcester, near London, and Conway, near Liverpool.

By the courtesy of Captain A. G. Ourzon Howe I obtained, (when visiting the Britannia), the course of study for cadets there. On its literary side it includes Algebra, English History, Natural Philosophy, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, French, Drawing, etc. There is also a Naval College at Greenwich, in which a higher professional education is obtained. The Military Colleges are at Woolwich, Sandhurst, and Camberley (Staff)

*In the *Journal of Education for Upper Canada* of January, 1868, will be found an elaborate paper, prepared by Mr. (now the Honourable) N. Clarke Wallace, and an M.P. for the West Riding of York, on the system of School Savings Banks, then introduced into the Township of Vaughan by Lawrence Hill, Esq., LL.D., President of the "Cent Savings Bank" of that Township. Mr. Wallace, in reply to my inquiries on the subject, said: "I wrote to the then (1868) Finance Minister, the Hon. (afterwards Sir) John Rose, and he adopted our system of Savings Banks, with the exception that he made the Post Masters the Agents, instead of the School Teachers. As our system was (in this form) adopted by the Government, we dropped out and wound up our Bank."

CHAPTER XIII.—OUTLOOK OF VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.

Like all matters of national concern in Europe, under the control of the Government, the details in such matters are elaborated with unusual minuteness and care. So it is with the system of Popular Education in England. It would seem that every conceivable subject which could be made practically available in furthering the education of youths, so as to fit boys and girls for their after life, and thus shape the destiny of those who have to earn their bread by industry, or skill, have been provided for in the various yearly "Codes" prescribed by the Lords' Committee of the Privy Council on Education. This is the paternal, and, doubtless, the wise and careful, side of Government control, in such matters of public concern, as the education of the people.

Looking carefully into the structure of the System of Public Instruction in England, with its varied and complicated parts, and its management by the Education Department, a person from a self-governing Colony of acknowledged status and experience, like ours, cannot but be impressed with the fact that, notwithstanding its elaborateness of detail, and its apparent completeness, there are elements of weakness in its administrative machinery, as pointed out, in a previous Chapter by Sir John Gorst and the Duke of Devonshire. There are also evidences, adduced by other parties, of the coming disintegration of its parts, or, what is better, their consolidation, as pointed out in the conclusion of the last Chapter of this Report.

Whether it is that the actual business of carrying on the work of Education in England is controlled by too many persons, (who, while they may have a common incentive in the work, have no common bond of union in it, but rather are antagonistic to each other), the Government may, for these reasons, maintain a vigilant, is not rigid, oversight (in matters of detail), over the proceedings of local School Managers. For, it is a fact that no loans can be contracted, even by a School Board, or a School Site "appropriated," as provided by Statute, without the assent of the Education Department. So also the plans for the erection of School Buildings, and the arrangement of premises, as well as variations of the Code, require the approval of the Department, before being acted upon.

(In a note attached to the Building Regulation it is stated that: "School planning is the science of thoroughly adapting every part of a building, even the minutest detail, to the work of School teaching. Convenience of plan, suitable lighting, proper sub-division into classes and thorough ventilation, with warmth, but without draughts, are its leading essentials.")

Even the form of Agreement between the Managers of a Board, or a Voluntary School and a Teacher and his Surety are prescribed by the Department, and it is authoritatively stated that "no departure from this form is allowed."

EFFECT OF A RESTRICTIVE POLICY IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

These restrictive regulations may be wise and salutary, as being merely precautionary, but they interfere directly with that freedom of choice and action which is inseparable from the sense of responsibility which properly attaches to all persons who are entrusted with the local administration of public affairs. This principle of personal and official freedom, coupled with personal and official responsibility, in such matters, is recognized as an essential one in legislation in all free-governing communities, especially in Canada and the United States.

Considering what has been the practical effect on the future of the Voluntary Schools of the recent financial legislation in their favour, I have been led to believe that a change is impending in the future, which will affect the stability if not permanence, of the present dual system of managing Elementary Schools in England. What has led me to this conclusion will, I think, be apparent to others, after I shall have pointed out what have been the various steps which have led up to the present state of things.

For many years after the passing of the Forster School Act of 1870, (which was then considered in the nature of a "compromise," the terms of which have not, as is now alleged, been observed), there has been more, or less, jealousy and friction between the Voluntary and Board Schools.

The great effort of the Education Department has been to induce the parties concerned to provide sufficient accommodation in the various localities for the numbers of children of school age resident therein. In this the Department has been at length successful.

"FABRIC CIRCULAR, 321" OF 1893, ON IMPROVEMENT IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL HOUSES.

In 1897, the number of children of the school ages of from five to fourteen years was 7,924,128. Up to August in that year, the seating accommodation which had been provided in Board and Voluntary Schools, as reported by the Inspectors, was sufficient for 6,220,158 of these children, while 5,507,039 of them were reported to be on the School Registers, with an average attendance of 4,488,543.

Up to 1892, the pressure brought to bear on School Managers by Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools to induce them to improve the condition of the school premises was slight, and somewhat desultory. In 1893, however, the Committee of Council on Education addressed to the Inspectors of Schools the somewhat notable "Fabric Circular, 321," in which it was stated that its object was to obtain:—"A fuller and more detailed statement" than the Inspectors' Reports had hitherto contained, "with reference to the condition as regards School Buildings and apparatus of each of the Schools in England and Wales."

In ordinary cases the Inspectors were directed "to press for an immediate alteration," but in the case of "any serious defect in the convenience of the School for teaching purposes, or in regard to its sanitation," it was to be specially reported on to the Managers of the School concerned, and to "the Education Department, with a view to its immediate removal."

At first, the issue of this Circular excited strong opposition, as well as a good deal of feeling, and appeals were made to the Department to relax the strictness of its terms, as to the improvements required in the Schools and their accessories, with a view to better fit them for the purposes of teaching. Reasonable time was given in special cases; and, as stated by Committee of Council in their Report for 1896-97, "Large sums of money have been raised, and, with comparatively few exceptions, the demands which it has been our duty to make have been readily met. As a result, we have the satisfaction of reporting that the condition of the School Buildings has never been so good as it is at the present time."

In 1896, at a meeting over which he presided, the Secretary of the Education Department, (Sir George Kekewich), mentioned several of the reasons which had led the Department thus to inquire into the actual condition of the School Buildings and their surroundings. He also referred to the wonderfully beneficial effects of the issue of the Fabric Circular, 321, as follows:—

"What has been the result of the issue of that Circular? We have had a wonderful 'object lesson.' No doubt some few buildings have perished in the storm. But I think all of these had reached a ripe old age, if not, indeed, decrepitude. That Circular brought out the strong educational feeling of the Nation, and, to an unprecedented degree, the latent energies of all interested in education; it destroyed apathy, and led men to support their opinions by their pockets. Enormous sums were contributed to put the Schools in a sanitary and efficient condition. . . ."

THE REACTIONARY EFFECT OF THE EFFORT TO IMPROVE THE SCHOOL ACCOMMODATION.

"The strong educational feeling of the nation," thus justly eulogized, which prompted the generous response on the part of parents to put the Schools for their children in a condition which would add to their comfort and convenience, and would not, as formerly,

imperil their health, was indeed most gratifying to all parties concerned. After a time, however, there came a financial reaction; and, owing to an accumulation of debts, caused by the outlay for buildings and repairs, great difficulty was experienced by the Managers of Voluntary Schools in collecting the required quota, as one of the conditions of receiving the Parliamentary Grant. Strong pressure was, therefore, brought to bear upon the Government to induce it to loosen the purse strings of the nation, and to give these Schools a sufficient sum to enable the Managers to keep them up to the required standard of efficiency.

Although, through the courtesy of Messieurs Sadler and Morant, I have received from the Library of the English Education Department, in London, a good deal of official information, yet it has been more from private sources that I have obtained such a statement of facts and explanations thereof, which I have been enabled to use, but which are not given in the official publications of the Department. As to the share in the burden which has been borne by Voluntary Schools, in regard to the expense of School Sites and School Buildings, I have been furnished with some special information, which I have condensed as follows:—

The Rev. J. S. Brown¹⁸⁹⁹, M.A., Secretary of the Church of England National School Society, informs me that "the cost of the buildings of the Church of England Elementary Schools since 1870 was £7,776,085. This sum does not include the value of School Sites, nor of the numerous Schools built by individual owners of property. The cost of improving the condition of the Church of England Schools, in terms of the 'Fabric Circular, 321,' was £131,976 in the year 1894."

In a Letter, in reply to mine, from the Rev. Dr. Waller, Secretary of the Wesleyan Committee on Education, he states that "the great 'Fabric Circular, 321,' involved the Wesleyan Connection in an expenditure of more than £63,000, which money had to be provided by the Trustees and others interested in the maintenance of Voluntary Wesleyan Schools. As you are doubtless aware, (he said) the supporters of Voluntary Schools have had to carry out all structural alterations in their School premises entirely at their own cost, and it is estimated that from 1870 . . . (up to the time of the issue of the Fabric Circular, 321), no less a sum than £7,000,000 had been spent on the erection, enlargement or improvement of Voluntary Schools generally, and that, too, without any Government aid in so doing." The proportion of the expenditure of the Wesleyan Church in the same time, and for a like period, was £604,626.

SUCCESS OF THE VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS APPEAL TO THE GOVERNMENT IN 1897.

After the effort to meet the requirements of the "Fabric Circular 321" had largely drained the resources of the Voluntary Schools—for which, in some cases, loans had to be made—urgent appeals were made to the Government for a Special Grant to these Voluntary Schools, so as to enable the Managers to maintain them efficiently. A deputation of the two Archbishops, twenty-seven Bishops and other persons presented a Memorial to Lord Salisbury on the subject. The Roman Catholic Hierarchy also sent a strongly-worded statement to the Government on the subject, setting forth their claims.

The decision of the Government, in regard to the various appeals thus made to it, was communicated to Lord Cranbourne, in 1895, by the Right Hon. Arthur J. Balfour, First Lord of the Treasury. He said:—"I will take care that the views which, on behalf of many Members of the House of Commons, you have communicated to me, respecting the position of Voluntary Schools are laid before my Colleagues, I am extremely anxious that something effectual should be done to relieve the almost intolerable strain to which these Schools are now subjected, and this is, I believe, the general wish of the party and of the Government."

These memorable words of Mr. Balfour: "the intolerable strain," gave rise to a prolonged agitation on the part of opponents to Voluntary Denominational Schools, and which is not yet ended, as these words were regarded as a key to the policy of the Government to maintain Voluntary Schools as a permanent part of the Educational System of the Country.

True to the promise made by Mr. Balfour, a Bill was introduced into the House of Commons by the Government in 1896. It met with strong opposition in the House and in the Country, on the ground that it violated in many respects, the terms of the government and local dual system of school support embodied in the "compromise" contained in the Forster Act of 1870. The Bill was, in consequence, withdrawn.

In February, 1897, however, a modified Bill was brought into the House of Commons by Mr. Balfour, which met with opposition, which was strongly resisted by the Government, and the Bill passed, as introduced. It provided for an average additional grant of five shillings per pupil in average attendance at Voluntary Schools, amounting in the aggregate to £617,000. It also exempted Voluntary School Premises from taxation, and repealed the financial limit of 17s 6d per child attending Board and Voluntary Schools—beyond which amount Parliamentary grants were not to be made to any School. As a set-off to this special grant to Voluntary Schools, and as a compromise, one of a much less amount was made to the Board Schools, viz, one shilling per child in average attendance, or £110,000. The conditions imposed by this grant-in-aid Act of 1897—that no part of the grant itself should be applied to the payment of debts, or of loans contracted to effect repairs and improvements in consequence of the "Fabric Circular 321." This Departmental decision greatly disappointed the Managers and supporters of Voluntary Schools. The purposes for which the grant-in-aid was made to Voluntary Schools are thus specified. 1. Improvement of teaching power; 2. Improvement of school equipment; 3. Making adequate provision for the maintenance of due efficiency.

MR. BALFOUR'S DEFENCE OF THE GRANT-IN-AID TO VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS.

The disappointment felt by the supporters of Voluntary Schools at the restrictions imposed upon them, in the application of this grant-in-aid, increased the feeling against the Government, as it revealed to the opponents of Voluntary Schools what were the claims and expectations of the Managers of these Schools. Early in 1898, Mr. Balfour thus defended himself and the policy of the Government in making this grant-in-aid to Voluntary Schools. He said:—

Last Session (of Parliament) was signalized by the passage of a Bill [for the relief of Voluntary Schools], for which I have never attempted . . . to claim too much, but which I verily believe will do a great deal to mitigate the strain that our system has put on Voluntary Schools, and will have effects, as I think, in favour of the system of Religious Education, even more far-reaching than may, perhaps, appear on the face of the Bill itself. I do not claim that, after the passage of this Bill, or, by the passage of this Bill, our system of Elementary Education has been made as clear, coherent, and logical, as are, at this moment, the two widely different systems which prevail in Scotland on the one hand and in Ireland on the other. The history and the development of Elementary Education in England render these clear-cut solutions, in my judgment, almost beyond the power of practical statesmanship, at all events in the immediate future. No attempt, therefore, was made by the Government to carry out, or to attain, any such impossible ideal. We contented ourselves with a measure, which, as we thought, would have the double effect of relieving the pecuniary strain on our Voluntary Schools, and, at the same time, provide an organization by which all those who are interested in the Voluntary System of primary education might have their hands strengthened, not merely in the present, but also in the future. We have succeeded almost beyond my expectations. I do not deny . . . that the experiment of inventing and setting up an entirely new machinery, such as that of the Voluntary Associations, was an experiment . . . of so bold a character that no prophet could venture with absolute assurance to say that this machinery would carry out the intention of its inventors. It has carried out this intention. I sent to inquire a few days ago of the Education Office, and to ask exactly how the matter stood now, with regard to the inclusion in these Associations of the Voluntary Schools of the Country, and they have sent me the following figures, which I think you will admit are of the most satisfactory character. There are in England about 14,000 Voluntary Schools. Of these 14,000, only 250 at the present time are not included in one of the

Voluntary Associations [*i.e.* Associations of Voluntary Schools] that have been formed under the Bill of last Session. Of those 250, 170 schools are not in need of any further public aid, and, for that reason, have not joined; 40 have good reasons, in the opinion of the Education Department, why they should not join; and there remain, therefore, of the whole 14,000 Voluntary Schools now in existence 40 schools, and 40 schools alone, the Managers of which have not thrown in their lot with the new system . . . devised and formulated in the Act of last Session."

Mr. Balfour further stated his belief that this new scheme of Associations of Voluntary Schools would tend to the perpetuation of these Schools, for as he said:—

"These new Associations are not confined, and cannot be confined, to merely advising the Education Department as to the division of the grant which is assigned to them. No; having brought the Managers, both lay and clerical, together in those bodies, all aiming at one object, all concerned in one great cause, it is quite impossible but that the object shall be better attained, that cause better supported by a co operation, which would never have taken place had these Associations not been called into being by an Act of the Legislature."

As may have been expected, this bold declaration of the object of the Government, in creating these Associations, has intensified the feeling of strong opposition to their continuance as a part of the system of Public Elementary Education in England.

UNLOOKED FOR EFFECT OF THE VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS GRANT OF 1897.

The grant itself, though most opportune and a great relief in enabling Managers of the Voluntary Schools to maintain them efficiently for the time, had nevertheless a most serious effect on the income of these Schools from voluntary subscriptions. This fact has recently impressed itself strongly upon the supporters and upholders of the Voluntary School system. Among the first to sound the note of warning on this subject has been Dr. Temple, the Archbishop of Canterbury, President of the National School Society. In an address delivered on the 13th of last May, before the Upper House of Convocation of the Church of England, he said:

"There was one thing which the Bishops must pay particular attention to, and that was that a real danger existed that the one result of the grant-in-aid which had been made would be a diminution of subscriptions. He felt confident that it would be impossible to maintain the position which the Church now held in regard to religious instruction if Churchmen were no longer willing to support the Schools of the Church as they had hitherto done. . . . The amount of support that was obtained had been found to be insufficient, and the grant-in-aid had been made to meet this insufficiency, but it would not long be possible to maintain the Church Schools, as the result of the grant was, that the support which had been received in the past from Churchmen was to be withdrawn. For, as he subsequently stated at the Annual Meeting of the National Society: "There was naturally a tendency to consider that the aid grant was to take the place of the voluntary subscriptions. This was never intended, and they could not maintain their Schools if such a result was to follow." . . . It would not, he thought, be possible very long to maintain religious instruction in the Board Schools themselves if the Voluntary Church Schools had to be surrendered. . . . "As regarded the general working of the grant-in-aid it would be necessary that they should contemplate the payment of higher salaries to some of the better Masters. There was a danger, if they allowed the Board Schools to give such very big salaries as they did, that the Voluntary Schools, as compared with the Board Schools, would be constantly falling behind. . . . It was for Churchmen to look to themselves that they did not lose the position they had won, by their neglect to do what they could for the maintenance of the Voluntary Schools."

"The Bishop of Hereford said that he had found that a great many people in the Country did not realise the extent to which additional subscriptions were required for the Voluntary Schools. There were two great dangers at the present time to Voluntary Schools. One was the danger of impoverishment, and the other was what seemed to be

the growing dissatisfaction on the part of many of the Teachers* . . . The people had not realized as a whole the duty of subscribing to the Voluntary Schools, if they really wished to maintain them. That point could not be too strongly pressed upon the people at large."

UNEXPECTED FALLING OFF OF SUBSCRIPTIONS TO VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS.

These notes of warning have been re-echoed at a rural-decanal Meeting lately held in the County of Devon. The principal speaker at that meeting said :—

"If they were to maintain the religious education given by the Church in her Schools, they wanted money, money, money. And there was a particular reason why, at the present moment, the Churchmen of England should be stirred up to face this point. They had just had given to them what was called the grant-in-aid, and there was very great fear, a fear which had just been voiced by no less an authority than the Archbishop of Canterbury, that it had entered into the minds of Churchmen that the grant-in-aid freed them from the responsibility of contributing to their National Schools. There could not be a greater mistake. That grant-in-aid was fettered by a great many conditions, which made it altogether not so useful, as they hoped it might be. . . . The stipends paid in many Church of England Schools were thoroughly and entirely inadequate. That was not the fault of the School Managers, or of the Clergy. It was the fault of the penuriousness of the laity of the Church of England, who did not recognize, and never had recognized, their responsibilities with regard to the religious education of England. . . . The ordinary layman went to Church and, perhaps, enjoyed the services, and at the end put a three-penny-bit in the offertory, but he never went into the National School and knew nothing of the patient, hard, grinding work done by the Clergy and Teachers to maintain those Schools, and keep them going practically."

"The Northern Counties Voluntary Schools Protective Association," in its "Proposals as to Financial Aid," issued under the Presidency of Dean Maclure, of Manchester, in October, 1896, (when the National Schools were in sore need of subscriptions and before the grant-in-aid was made), thus points out the apathy of the laity of the Church of England in the support of her Schools :—

"There may still be some who pin their faith upon the resource of Voluntary Subscriptions. To test its hopefulness, take the case of Liverpool, where subscriptions are not much over one-half the average for England and Wales—(being £20,000). The same people pay the larger portion of the School Board Precept (rates). . . . A simple calculation will show that those who rely on subscriptions to enable the Liverpool Voluntary Schools to hold their own, must expect the friends of such schools to find, . . . a sum which, inclusive of their share of the education rate, will exceed £125,000.

"As a second illustration, a comparison of Lancashire with London may be instructive. They are not far from equal in population . . . London teaches less than thirty per cent. of her children in Voluntary Schools; Lancashire teaches over eighty per cent. . . . Our friends in London are, however, face to face with an aggressive Board, . . . but their practically stationary attitude, in contrast with the rapid strides of the School Board, suggests that the ultimate issue is scarcely doubtful. . . .

"Analysis applied to other Counties and Towns in the North, yield similar results; at all events, it is safe to say, that no large addition to the subscriptions now paid in our large urban districts can be looked for."

Such statements, as the foregoing, and those of the Devon meeting, in regard to the falling off of subscriptions to the Church of England Voluntary Schools, are borne out by the two Organizing Secretaries of the Church of England National Society, who have practically the charge of the Society's educational work in the two Districts, into which

* This dissatisfaction was largely due to the fact that the Teachers of Church Schools were generally employed in Parish work, while their salaries were lower, as a rule, than were those of the Teachers in the Board Schools.

England is, for School purposes, divided. The Rev. O. H. Burrell, Organizing Secretary of this same Northern Division, in his Report to the National Society, says:—

"With regard to the support given to the Society in the North . . . there are still far too many parishes which, though they have received grants from us, seem unwilling, or unmindful, to do anything in the way of subscriptions, or collections, in return. Some hundreds of appeals which I have made . . . still remain unanswered. New subscriptions are very difficult to get"

The Rev. F. I. Chandler, of the Southern District, in the National Society Report for 1897, says:—

"I am sorry still to see that the number of grantee parishes, (those receiving school aid from the Society,) which have never given an offertory to the Society, in return for help, is larger than the total number of Churches contributing to the Schools during the year."

"We are still some way off that much-to-be-desired hour, when no earnest Churchman will be content to be without a School in his parish."

Quite recently the Education Department gave warning to the authorities of the Church of England School at Arundel that the accommodation for pupils was inadequate, and that the Schools must be rebuilt and enlarged, or make way for the School Board. In consequence of this intimation, efforts were made to raise the funds necessary for this purpose, but so far without success.

The Bishop of Liverpool, at the last meeting of the Diocesan Board of Education, said, that:—

"The whole question of education was rather in a critical condition at the present season. Whether another year would put them in a better condition remained to be seen. The Church of England Schools were heavily met by the continual support given to the Board Schools. As long as they had Board Schools so liberally supported as they were there, and so well conducted, they must not be surprised if they found such a deficiency as they had at the present moment."

The grant-in-aid to Voluntary Schools, as made under the Voluntary Schools Act of 1897 has thus had, as so forcibly stated by the President of the National School Society and other representative men, a paralyzing effect on the liberality of the Church of England laity, in support of these Schools. The violation of the actual terms of the compromises in the Forster act of 1870—one of which was that "all elementary schools were to be maintained, half out of local sources, and half out of money provided by the State, in the shape of a Government grant"—has been relaxed, and has, therefore, given fresh vigour to the latent opposition, which has long been felt to Denominational Schools as part of the Public School system of England—the grant-in-aid now made is quite in excess of the conditional "one-half" to be furnished by the Government, and may, in the future, as feared by the opponents of Voluntary Schools, be definitely increased.

It has been felt, as expressed by more than one speaker on the subject in England, friendly to Voluntary Schools, that, in making the grant-in-aid to Voluntary Schools:—

"The first thing that has happened is, what we always said would happen, a falling off of subscriptions. It has been, and will be more and more, I believe, a Bill, not for the promotion of education, but for the relief of subscribers."

PROPOSED PLAN OF RELIEF.—THE STATE TO FURNISH TEACHERS.

At a Diocesan Conference held at Oxford in July, 1898, the present condition of the Voluntary Schools was discussed, and it was stated by Mr. C. A. Cripps, M.P., that an imperative change was necessary in the matter of the teaching staff. He said:—

He did not think they could speak too highly of the self-denial in some cases and of the energy and enthusiasm in almost all of the Teachers who were connected with their Voluntary Schools. But they must deal in the long run with the average of human nature; and if they were bound to pay the Teachers in their Voluntary and Denomina-

tional Schools a smaller salary than their more fortunate brethren of the Board Schools—where the ratepayer had what had been called his bottomless purse—in the long run they were likely to have a less efficient staff of Teachers in their Voluntary and denominational Schools; and if they wanted an equality of education they must have equality of teaching power and teaching staff.

The Schools of this Country, whether Voluntary or Board, ought to be provided at the national expense with a similar class of Teachers, similarly trained, similarly efficient, similar in quantity to the number of pupils they had to teach.

Mr. Cripp, in order to put on record this latter suggestion, moved the following Resolution, which was carried:—

“That this Conference is of opinion that the State should provide an adequate staff of Teachers for all Elementary Schools, in order to ensure an equally efficient education for the children in all Schools, whether Denominational, or not; and that, in fixing the adequacy of such staff, the limitation between Elementary and Secondary Education, should be further defined.”

This scheme is, however, regarded as but the thin end of the wedge, or as the first instalment of a plan to have Parliament practically assume the entire charge of the maintenance of the Voluntary Schools—by grant and by local rate—a scheme which has many strong advocates, but few real friends.

It is, nevertheless, a hopeful sign of the future of a scheme of truly National Education in England, to find among the supporters of Voluntary Schools so influential and important a Body as the Wesleyan Conference expressing itself definitely in favour of a homogeneous system of popular education in England.

On this subject the Rev. Dr. Waller has written to me as follows:

“With regard to the views of the Wesleyan Conference on the subject of Public Education, I may say that it has repeatedly declared that the primary object of Methodist policy in the matter of elementary education is the establishment of Board Schools everywhere, acting in sufficient area, and the placing of a Christian unsectarian School within reasonable distance of every family.

“With regard to the question of State aid for Voluntary Schools . . . the Wesleyan Conference has declared, ‘that there should be no increased grant of public funds, whether from local rates, or from the Imperial taxes, to Denominational Schools, unless the increased grant is accompanied by adequate and representative public management.’”

MOVEMENT IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS TOWARDS A HOMOGENEOUS SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS.

During the last Session of Parliament, the substance of these declarations of the Wesleyan Conference was submitted in the form of a resolution to the House of Commons by Mr. D. Lloyd-George, as follows:

“That in the opinion of this House it is essential to a just and efficient system of national education that there should be within reach of every child in England and Wales a popular Elementary School, under local representative management, and that there should also be provided increased facilities for the training of Teachers in Colleges, free from sectarian control.”

In discussing this motion, Sir John Gorst, who is Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, expressed the opinion:

“That unless some plan is invented by which the ratepayers in Towns and urban districts are empowered, if they choose, to support Voluntary Schools out of the rates, a very large number of them must disappear.”

Subsequently, at the dedication, by the Bishop of London, of the St. Stephen's School, Paddington, in November, 1898, Sir John Gorst predicted the possible perpetuity of the System of Voluntary Schools in England, and said:

" . . . The law had deliberately established in this country a double system of elementary education," . . . and that, while the State had moulded two systems of management, it had not arranged that one of these systems should have adequate funds wherewith to discharge the duties which it undertook, and the friends of education could promote the cases in no better way than by arranging for the removal of the disabilities under which the managers of Voluntary Schools now lay.

He did not say this in the interests of Voluntary Schools. . . . He commended to their consideration the fact, that Voluntary Schools would continue to exist. Nobody could kill them : nobody could destroy them ; and they would continue for all their lives, and perhaps for many generations to come. It was, therefore, to the interest of the people of this country, to the interest of the parents, to insist that there should be some plan devised by which the Voluntary School Managers should have adequate funds by which they could give as good a secular education as that given in Board Schools."

Sir Wm. Harcourt took strong ground against the dual system of education in England, but he hoped that the declarations made by the Minister as to the fundamental deficiencies of national education might sink into the heart, not only of the House of Commons, but of the people of the Country, so as to give that impetus and support to the Government of the day to enable them to set to work on a task, which he believed to be of the most supreme importance to the future of this Country."

The ex-President of the Wesleyan Conference of 1897, forecasting the educational future of the school question in England, said :

" While many desire one uniform system for the whole Nation, the force of circumstances makes it probable that the dual system . . . will continue for some time to come. . . . It may be that they can be brought into more harmonious relations and co-operate more effectually for the common good. The cry for popular representative control in proportion to the support derived from the payers of rates, or taxes, is so simple, so just, so reasonable, and is taking such hold of public opinion that the principle bids fair to extend and prevail."

ORGANIZED OPPOSITION TO VOLUNTARY DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

Although the Voluntary Schools Act of 1897 was considered to be a great boon by the supporters of these Schools, yet, in some respects, it aroused a stronger opposition in the public mind to such an endorsement by Parliament of the principle of private Denominational Schools, as opposed to that of the national system of Board Schools under local public control. That the strength of this opposition was lessened, it is true, by the passage of a corresponding Act at the same Session of Parliament, providing for a special extension of the Parliamentary Grant to Board Schools. In 1897, this extra grant was made. At the annual Meeting of the National Education Association, held on the 15th of February, 1898, the Report presented stated, that the Voluntary School Grant, under the new Act of 1897, was at the rate of five shillings per child of average attendance, (or £617,000 in the aggregate), and that the increased special grant under the Board School Act of the same year was one shilling per child of average attendance, or £110,000 in all.

Among the many reasons which have been urged by educational reformers in England " why Voluntary (denominational) Schools should cease to be supported by a Parliamentary Grant", there are two which seem to me to embody the substance of the whole popular argument in England against these Schools. They are :—

- (1) The " perversion" of State funds, voted by Parliament to aid in the propagation of purely Denominational views and opinions, under the guise of promoting education.
- (2) The utter absence of official local control in the management of these Voluntary Schools by the public.

Among the active opponents of these Voluntary (denominational) Schools is the National Education Association of London, under the Presidency of Lord Battersea. Through its Emergency Committee, this Association has issued a number of pamphlets and about a hundred fly-sheets, containing strong and vigorous arguments, from the

national school standpoint, against Voluntary (denominational) Schools. The most interesting and striking of these pamphlets are : "The Education Crisis : A Defence of Popular Management of Public Education," "The Inherent Defects of Voluntary Schools," "The Advantage of the School Board System," etc.

NOTE.—On page 41, a striking example is given of the inferior quality of the education given in the London Voluntary Schools, as evidenced at a recent County Scholar ^{54/1} Examination.

ACTIVE MOVEMENT TO PROMOTE A PUBLIC GENERAL SYSTEM OF POPULAR EDUCATION.

I have thus given the views of prominent public men who fully represent the various opinions prevalent in England on educational matters. Several organizations exist which are pledged to promote in every way the projected reform indicated, and either to abolish the dual system altogether, or to insist on a local representation of rate-payers on all Voluntary School Boards receiving a portion of the Parliamentary grant.

The most important of these organizations is the "National Education Association," of which the Right Honourable A. J. Mundella was President for nine years, and until his death last summer. In the Report of this Association for 1897, (which I greatly condense), it is stated that :

"The reactionary educational policy . . . (indicated by the school legislation of 1897)—led to proposals for united action in various quarters among Societies . . . friendly to a publicly-managed and undenominational system of Schools ; (viz., the Birmingham and Midland League, the Northern Counties' League, and that of the 'Free Churches League.' . . . A conference of the Association and these Leagues was held last summer, and a series of Resolutions was agreed to. Among them were the two following :

"(1) That . . . the establishment of School Boards should be extended by Parliament over the whole Country.

"(3) That School Boards should have the management of all Public Elementary Schools within their area, the management to cover the appointment of Teachers."

With a view to combined action the Executive Committee urge that a vigorous campaign be inaugurated on the ground :

"That the serious aggressions upon the School Board system and the unjust discrimination in favour of sectarianism embodied in the legislation of last Session, make the diffusion of sound principles more necessary than ever."

All friends of education are urged to demand "not only the repeal of the reactionary legislation, but also a considerable step forward in the direction of universal School Boards, with unsectarian Schools under their management, and within the reach of all."

CHAPTER XIV.—THE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND.

Of late years there has been a strong desire, largely in commercial circles, for an extension of university privileges to the larger progressive Cities and Towns in England.

In an official Report on University Colleges, receiving grants from the Imperial Parliament, published in 1897, a resumé of progress in the direction of Colleges is thus given :—

"The University Colleges of Great Britain are a remarkable development, and have become a very important part of the educational life and system of the Country ; University College and King's College, in London, were founded early in the century ; Owens College, at Manchester, will soon reach its jubilee ; Bedford College is a little older ; but the others have all grown up within the last twenty, or twenty-five, years. . . . They represent a total capital expenditure . . . of nearly two millions (£2,000,000) of money, and an annual expenditure of £155,487. . . . They are supplying education to a total of

pupils—men and women—in arts and sciences, including Training College students, which approaches to some six thousand (6,000) and in all departments, including Medical, Engineering and Technical students, to some twelve thousand (12,000). . . .

"It may be noted that the rise and prosperity of these Colleges . . . has not been brought about at the expense of previously existing Universities. On the contrary, we find that most of these Colleges are largely manned by Professors drawn from the older Universities, and that there is a frequent interchange of Teachers between the two sets of Institutions. . . .

NAMES OF THE LOCAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGES IN ENGLAND.

The Colleges inspected, and on which reports are given in this Parliamentary Return, are the following :

1. *University College*, London, founded in 1828—"A place of learning of some considerable prestige and tradition. . . . It has "been, in a sense the pioneer and model of the University Colleges throughout the country."
2. *King's College*, London, founded by Royal Charter, in 1828. . . . In 1882, the Charter was enlarged with a view to enable the College to educate women.
3. *Bedford College*, London, founded in 1849 as a College for adult women.
4. *Owen's College*, Manchester, founded in 1841. It is one of the three local Colleges which constitute the Victoria University.
5. *University College*, Liverpool, founded in 1878, is the second of the three Colleges of Victoria University.
6. *The Yorkshire College*, Leeds, founded in 1874, is the third of the Colleges of Victoria University.
7. *Mason College*, Birmingham, founded in 1875, and which it is proposed to erect into the Birmingham University. (See next page).
8. *University College*, Bristol, founded in 1876, "for the education of persons of both sexes."
9. *The Durham College of Science*, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, commenced in 1871, and maintained by the University of Durham.
10. *University College*, Nottingham, mainly founded and supported by the Corporation of Nottingham and affiliated with the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.
11. *Frith College*, Sheffield, founded by Mark Frith, in 1879. It prepares Students for the University of London.
12. *University Extension College*, Reading, founded 1892, and is an amalgamation of the local Schools of Science and Art in Reading, in connection with Oxford University.
13. *Technical and University Extension College*, Exeter, founded in its present form in 1893. It is also an amalgamation of the Schools of Science and Art in Exeter. It will likely be connected with Cambridge University.

VARIOUS UNIVERSITIES IN ENGLAND.

To these University Colleges might be added the ones recently founded in Oxford and Cambridge, viz.:—Keble, Mansfield and Manchester, in Oxford; also Lady Margaret, St. Hilda and St. Hugh and Ruskin's Halls, and Towerville College, in Oxford; and Girton and Newnham Colleges in Cambridge, etc.

In addition to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, there are also the following recognized Universities in England :—

1. The University of Durham, founded in 1893.

2. The University of London, founded in 1836. It is now proposed to make this a Teaching University, instead of being, as it is now, an "Examining University."
3. The Victoria University, of Manchester, founded in 1880.
4. University of Wales, founded in 1893.

THE PROPOSED UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM.

It has also been proposed to erect Mason College in Birmingham into a Teaching University. In advocating this change, the Right Honourable Joseph Chamberlain, Member for Birmingham, said :—

"There was a time, no doubt, where members of the older Universities, and men who were altogether independent of them, believed that the multiplication of Universities would injure education, and that it would lead, in a certain sense, to the degradation and lowering of the value of the Degrees which Universities conferred. But very much has happened in the last twenty years; and he could scarcely imagine any reasonable man arguing in that strain now. . . . What did they mean by a University? What new Institution was it they desired to place in Birmingham? They meant, he took it, a great School of Universal Instruction, not confined to any particular branch of knowledge, but taking all knowledge as its province, and arranging regular courses of complete instruction in all the great branches of information.

UNIVERSITY EXAMPLES IN GERMANY AND SCOTLAND CITED.

"But, if they went outside England, the argument was greatly strengthened. They looked to Germany for an example, and as a model of everything in the way of educational organization and progress. Education was 'made in Germany.' The population there was 46,000,000, and it had 21 Universities. Their own sister Kingdom of Scotland, with 4,000,000, had four Universities. England and Wales, with nearly 30,000,000, had only six Universities. Birmingham and the surrounding district was the only great centre in England which has not been provided with a University. Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds have the Victoria University. Newcastle is closely connected with Durham. Wales has its own University, and London has a University also.

"We could not imitate Oxford and Cambridge if we would, and we would not if we could. The older Universities supply a want of their own, and they offered associations, traditions and conditions which we could not emulate. If anything were to happen to them, they would leave an incalculable gap in all that is interesting and picturesque in English life and history.

"There is no doubt whatever, from the experience of such Universities, as those to which I have referred, that to place them in the middle of a great industrial and manufacturing population is to do something to leaven the whole mass to higher aims and higher intellectual ambitions than would otherwise be possible for people engaged entirely in trading and commercial pursuits."

OTHER THAN THE LEARNED PROFESSIONS KNOCKING AT THE UNIVERSITY GATE.

In his recent inaugural speech as Lord Rector of St. Andrew's University, Mr. James Stuart, M.P., in very striking language, called attention to the new demands on Universities for a far wider range of studies than those now taught in them. He said :—

"Since Universities were founded, other callings had arisen besides those of what used to be known as the 'learned professions'? Engineering had almost won its way into their University System. The Professor of Teaching had a claim to University recognition. These were two great branches of human knowledge knocking at the gate of the Universities, and offering precisely the same plea for acceptance as the professions of Medicine, Law and Theology did 800 years ago. If the Universities were not to be left behind, they must respond to that knocking at the gate; they must remember the demand that called them into being. But the professions of the Engineer and of the

Teacher were only two of the many callings of mankind which asked for University recognition. Trade and Commerce were still outside their University system, and those who followed them had to be content with the crumbs that fell from other tables. Then there were the professions of the Civil Service and the Newspaper press. Even from the University's own point of view, it became daily more necessary to find more outlets for their students. Do not fear the curriculum being too full—students already could select for themselves—give them ample opportunity. They ought to strive to give men wide chances of knowing what the state of knowledge is in its entirety."

WHAT A LOCAL, OR PROVINCIAL, UNIVERSITY SHOULD BE.

In another speech at Birmingham, by Mr. Chamberlain, in November, 1898, he thus emphasized what he thought should be the distinctive character of a local, or provincial, University :—

"There is a tendency with a few people to sneer at provincial Universities, and to represent them as what I may call "bread and butter schools;" that is to say, as Institutions, which are intended merely to enable the students to take advantage of them to stand in rather better positions to earn their own livelihoods than they would do, if they were without them. I do not think myself that even that mission is one altogether to be despised. . . .

"A provincial University ought to be in some sense distinctive. It ought to have a stamp of its own. In my opinion, it ought to be redolent of the soil, and inspired by the associations in which it exists. Well, what are the associations and the inspirations which we gather from our position? It appears to me, to begin with, that we must remember that Birmingham has always been the home of a Medical School of a very high reputation. . . .

"Again, the enormous development of science requires, undoubtedly, an extended application of the means of instruction; and, of course, there is special reason that science should take a very prominent place in connection with a University which is situated in the centre of a manufacturing and commercial district; and it would be, in my opinion, pedantry were we to pretend that we did not attach the highest importance to this branch of our work, and did not intend that it should be distinctly carried out, and should give to the University a position of its own.

THE NECESSITY OF EQUIPMENT FOR COMMERCIAL LIFE.

"I would like, however, to go one step further. There is one branch of education which seems to me hitherto to have been curiously neglected in the Universities that at present exist in this Country. There is, as far as I know, nothing like an organised Commercial Education. I admit I desire very much to see, some time or another, a Faculty for commercial education in connection with the University of Birmingham, in which there should be a fully equipped centre for modern languages, taught, not as they are taught now, without much system, but taught scientifically, in which also attention would be paid to Commercial Geography, Commercial Law, Commercial Economy, and the other kindred subjects. In fact, I cannot see why we should not do for those who are intended for commercial life what we already do for those who are intended for the professions. The establishment of such a School as that would give to our University that special character, which I think it will have to attain to, if it is to maintain a distinctive, separate and important position."

In referring to the urgent request of the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce that "a real Faculty of Commerce" be established in the proposed University of Birmingham, Mr. Chamberlain, in a later speech, said :—

"That, while it was desirable to give special attention to scientific Commercial Education, . . . the Chamber of Commerce went further, and desired a 'real Faculty of Commerce,' such as exists in only one University in Europe—that of Leipzig. . . .

CHAPTER XV.—GENERAL OBSERVATIONS AND SURVEY OF THE PROSPECTS OF POPULAR EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

I propose in this Chapter to notice some features of the English Educational System, as they have presented themselves to me, and to analyse and discuss the causes which have produced, of late years, so great and beneficial a change in public opinion and feeling in regard to popular education in England.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ADMINISTRATION IN ENGLAND.

I have already, in Chapter XIII., touched upon what may be regarded as characteristic of English administrative practice. While it is, as a rule, fair and impartial, it is very methodical and minute in regard to details. It is nevertheless paternal, but it is also somewhat arbitrary and inflexible in its rulings and decisions.

SOME OF THE HINDRANCES TO THE PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH SCHOOL SYSTEM.

There are several serious hindrances to the progress and success of the system of Popular Education in England, which have been but slightly touched on in this Report. They are partly inherent, and partly traditional.

1. The first, in its after effects, has been, no doubt, the great supineness, in past years, of the English people in the matter of Popular Education. "It is," as the Report of the Education Department for 1897 98, puts it, that, "as a Nation, we have only within comparatively recent years, grasped the idea of universal elementary education. We realized but slowly how far behind we had lagged in the supply of elementary education for the masses of the people."

It has taken time, therefore, to make up for this early neglect of a subject, which in other countries, especially in Holland, Germany, the United States and Canada, had long since engaged the serious and practical attention of their statesmen and people.

2. The second great drawback to the efficiency, as to results, is the short-lived attendance of children in the Schools. Of the 4,888,307 pupils in average attendance at the Schools in 1897, only 1,186,300, which remained in the Schools, were between the ages of eleven and thirteen, (or less than one-fourth of those on the roll, at those ages). After discussing the causes, which have led to this state of things, the Report of the Education Department for 1897 98, states, that the immediate cause of it is the desire of pupils for immediate gain, and the selfishness of parents for the same.

Another barrier to successful progress in this matter, is the great diversity of standards fixed by local by-laws for total, or partial, exemption of children from School attendance in England and Wales. The Education Department deplors this state of things and feels, "that, so long as this unevenness in the normal duration of School life continues to be characteristic of our system of public elementary education, little can be done towards impressing on the public mind a definite idea of what should be the normal intellectual outcome of an Elementary School course" of instruction.

3. The third great hindrance to the successful working of the English School System chiefly affects its higher grade, of what are termed "Secondary Schools." More than one effort has been made by the Government to deal with this question, but without success. At length, a Royal Commission was appointed to deal with secondary education. Their enquiries brought out into strong relief the inherent difficulties of dealing with a question of this kind in a satisfactory manner, owing to the "vested interests" of a peculiar kind, which claimed and exercised proprietary powers over Schools of a higher grade than those for elementary instruction. These were exercised by School Boards, County Councils, the Science and Art Department, the Charity Commissioners, and chiefly by the Managers of Proprietary Schools. There is, however, every reason to believe that, as proposed in the

Duke of Devonshire's Bill on "Secondary Education," all of these interests and the so-called vested rights will be merged in one strong executive body, termed a Central Educational Board, like that of the other Boards in the English Governmental System.

BASIS OF THE ENGLISH AND AMERICAN SYSTEMS OF POPULAR EDUCATION.

To my mind, one of the inherent causes of the failure, up to a late date, of the English System of Popular Education to provide for, and to reach, the masses of the people, was the narrow basis upon which it was originally projected by the great and influential Society, which undertook, (in 1811,) to lead in this truly "national" movement. It appropriated to itself the term "National," but yet confined its operations, (as it stated), to "the Education of the Poor," while, in point of fact, the "poor" of England represented only a fraction of the Nation at large. Even Sunday Schools were projected with a very little higher aim than the giving of religious instruction to the "poor." It is singular how this narrow view of the purpose and object of National Education continued to hold sway for so long, not so openly, or publicly, as formerly, but still as a tradition. And, in this way, and for this cause, the education of the masses is, more or less, regarded as a tentative movement. Fortunately, the present leaders of public opinion in England repudiate this narrow view of their duty, and that of the nation at large, in this matter.

It is gratifying to know that the former English ideas on this subject never had, for any length of time, a lodgment in the minds of Educationists on this side of the Atlantic. The basis upon which popular education rests in the United States, and in Canada, is, and was intended to be, as broad as it was possible to be, so as to include in its grasp and purpose the entire population of the land. It was also designed to be as comprehensive as were the intellectual requirements of every class of the population.

In the United States, no other idea was, or is, held by public men there,—and, indeed, by the whole Nation,—than that the system of popular education should be homogeneous, and that its foundation should be so broad and deep, that, in its operation, it should be co-extensive with the needs of the population. No exclusive rights were to be conceded, or permitted, to any portion of the community, religious or otherwise. The object of the system was, that the entire people were to enjoy, without let, or hindrance, all the benefits of a comprehensive scheme of national education, free and open to every one alike, without respect to class, nationalities, or degree.

In this connection, I may here quote the words of a distinguished representative of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States—Archbishop Ireland, of St. Paul, Minnesota, who, in an address before the American National Education Association, in 1890, said:—

"I am the friend and advocate of the State School. I uphold the Parish School. I sincerely wish that the need of it did not exist. I would have all Schools for the children of the people State Schools.

"The right of the State School to exist, I consider, is a matter beyond the stage of discussion. I fully concede it. To the child must be imparted instruction in no mean degree. The imparting of this is primarily the function of the child's parent. The family is prior to the State. The State intervenes, whenever the family can not, or will not, do the work that is needed. The place of the State, in the function of instruction is *loco parentis*. As things are, tens of thousands of children will not be instructed, if parents remain solely in charge of this duty. The State must come forward as an agent of instruction; else ignorance will prevail. Indeed, in the absence of State action, there never was that universal instruction which we have so nearly attained, and which we deem necessary. In the absence of State action, I believe universal instruction would never in any country have been possible.

"State action in favour of instruction implies free Schools. . . . In no other manner can we bring instruction within the reach of all children. . . . Blest, indeed, is that land whose vales and hill sides the [School House] adorns; and blest the generation upon whose souls are poured its treasures. . . .

"It were idle for me to praise the work of the State School of America in the imparting of secular instruction. . . . It is our pride and glory. The Republic of the United States has solemnly affirmed its resolve that within its borders no clouds of ignorance shall settle upon the minds of the children of its people. To reach this result its generosity knows no limit. The Free Schools of America! Withered be the hand raised in sign of its destruction! . . .

"The American people are naturally reverent and religious. Their laws and Public Observances breathe forth the perfume of religion. The American School, as it first reared its log walls around the Villages of New England, was religious through and through.

"I would solve the difficulty by submitting it to the calm judgment of the Country.

"I would permeate the regular State School with the religion of the majority of the children of the land, be it Protestant, as Protestantism can be; and I would, as they do in England, pay for the secular instruction given in Denominational Schools according to results; that is, each pupil passing the examination before the State Officials, and in full accordance with the State programme, would secure to his School the cost of the tuition of a pupil in the State School.

"There is also another plan:

"I would do as the Protestants and Catholics have done [for over twenty years] in Poughkeepsie and other places in our country have agreed to do, to the greatest satisfaction of all citizens and the great advancement of educational interests."⁴

THE ENGLISH CODE OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION AND ITS MINUTENESS OF DETAIL.

The scheme of School education, and the subjects of instruction, prescribed in the yearly "Code," are so elaborated, as to provide, apparently, for every possible contingency, and every possible detail, of Elementary Education, as well as other matters, which are rarely included in the ordinary syllabus of instruction in other Countries. These details are, moreover, fenced in by many restrictions, which can only be relaxed, "if sanctioned by the Department."

The Education Department, in its Report, however, for 1897-98, thus admits the necessity for a more liberal interpretation of its "Code."

"It is not generally understood how much encouragement is now given by the Code to the adaptation of educational methods to the needs of different districts. It has been our aim to remove, as far as possible, all restrictions which might needlessly hamper the freedom of Teachers and of Managers, in their desire to increase the efficiency of the Schools." . . . "We have thought it wise to leave the Managers of Schools as free as possible in formulating courses of manual instruction . . . but have published for their guidance a paper of suggestions," on the subject, etc.

I have pointed to various restrictive rules of the Department in Chapter VII. I will there be seen what are the extra subjects prescribed for the ordinary pupils of a School.

In the "Instructions to Inspectors," the Department names the kindergarten subjects for "Infants," and enumerates fourteen things which a child of from three to five years of age can do, and twenty things which a child between the ages of five and seven can do. It has also given in these instructions minute details for the teaching and management of a cookery class, including a list of utensils to be used in teaching.

⁴Having written to Archbishop Ireland for some information in regard to the Poughkeepsie plan, which is otherwise known as "the Faribault scheme" of education, he referred me to the Rev. James Nilan, Parish Priest at Poughkeepsie, for definite information on the subject. He said, however, "That the 'Faribault Plan' is nothing else than the 'Irish School Plan,' which has been in working order throughout Ireland for the last fifty years. It was first applied in this Country in Poughkeepsie, New York. . . . 'Do not tell me' (says the Archbishop) 'of the difficulties of detail in working out either of my schemes. . . . Other schemes, more perfect in conception and easier of application, will, perhaps, be presented in time. Meanwhile, let us do the best that we can and do know.'" (See page 30.)

All of this is very good, very suggestive and very useful ; and it may be very desirable thus to ensure uniformity and completeness, and it may also prevent much loss of time in constructing, in localities, Time Tables of instruction, as well as necessary directions for the Teacher ; but it also shows how greatly elaborated have been these details of instruction in the Code for English Elementary Schools.

OBJECT LESSONS AND PHYSICAL EXERCISES IN THE SCHOOLS.

The Subjects of Object Lessons in Country Schools include "Plant Life," "Animal Life," "The Sky, Air, Land and Water," and are excellent in their extent and variety. Those for Town Schools are also full of useful detail, and are complete of their kind. The Department has also provided, in the "Code," for "Visits to Museums and Other Institutions of Educational Value," in connection with the teaching of Object Lessons.

In the matter of Physical Exercises in Schools, the Department has given very full directions as to when and how, and under what circumstances, pupils should, and should not, engage in them. It recognizes four organizations, or institutions, the Certificates of which it will accept, as evidence of the fitness of a holder to conduct the physical exercises of a School, viz : the Military Authorities at Aldershot, the British College of Physical Education, the Amateur Gymnastic Association and the Birmingham Athletic Institute.

GENEROUS FINANCIAL PROVISION FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

In so elaborate and complex a system, it is obvious that it would be necessary to provide, with no unsparing hand, for the legitimate expenses of a Scheme of Education covering so large an extent of ground, and embracing so extensive a field of scholastic work.

The Governments of the day have not failed to redeem their implied pledge that, while imposing upon the Country so extended and minute a scheme of education, they would also provide the necessary funds to ensure its efficiency. Hence the following are the amounts which were voted by Parliament in successive years, after the first Education Grant of £20,000, which was made in 1833.

Very little addition was made to this sum for some years. In 1840, it was, however, increased to £30,000, but in 1841, it was raised to £40,000. Subsequent Grants were made year by year, but I have not given them consecutively :

In 1843 the Grant was	£ 50,000
In 1845 "	75,000
In 1847 "	100,000
In 1849 "	125,000
In 1851 "	150,000
In 1852 "	160,000

After this last year the Grants began rapidly to increase.

In 1853 the Grant was	£263,000
In 1855 "	396,921
In 1856 "	451,213
In 1857 "	541,233
In 1858 "	663,435
In 1860 "	724,403
In 1861 "	813,441

In 1863, under the administration of the Education Department by Mr. Robert Lowe, (afterwards Lord Sherbrooke), and the adoption of the scheme of "payment by results," the Grant fell to £774,743.

"Thus," (as the Final Report of the Commissioners of Inquiry of 1858 states), "the promise of Mr. Lowe to the House of Commons, that education, under his system of administering the grants, should, if not efficient, would be cheap, bid fair to be realized, so far, at least, as the second of these alternatives was concerned, since the cost to the Country of the annual Grants steadily diminished." This will be seen more clearly from the following Table :—

In 1863 the Grant was	£721,386
In 1864 "	655,036
In 1865 "	636,806
In 1866 "	649,307

In 1871, a "Revised Code" came into operation, and, in 1872, the Parliamentary Grant was increased to £789,689.

In 1873 the Grant was	£902,177
In 1875 "	1,031,609
In 1880 "	2,130,009
In 1887 "	3,071,547
In 1895 "	4,081,281

Thus the Grant was increased in each year, until it has now practically reached double the sum of the grant of 1895,

WHAT HAVE BEEN THE CAUSES OF THIS AWAKENING IN ENGLAND?

Of course the inquiry would, under those circumstances, naturally be: What were the moving causes which brought about so remarkable a change in the disposition of Parliament, so as to induce it thus so largely to augment the sum placed each year at the disposal of Managers of Schools, so as to enable these Managers to support their Schools, and to carry out the obligatory requirements of the Code?

Upon a careful review of all the circumstances connected with the change in public opinion, in regard to the importance and necessity of an improved and effective System of Education for England, I have been strongly impressed with the fact, that the causes which have produced so striking an upward movement in public opinion have been manifold.

But however manifold they may have been, they can, nevertheless, be practicably reduced to three—two of them active in their operation, and the third silent in its influence, yet far-reaching in its effects.

1. THE FIRST ACTIVE INFLUENCE ON ENGLISH PUBLIC OPINION.

The first and most potent of the influences which have brought about so salutary a change in public opinion in regard to education, has clearly been partly commercial, in its more active and practical form, and partly national, in its competitive aspect, and in connection with British Commerce.

EDUCATION AND INTELLIGENCE THE NECESSARY BASIS OF INDUSTRIAL SKILL.

Everyone who has given any attention to these matters, and to the extent and character of British Commerce, and of the interests involved, has not failed to point out, more or less strongly—not the decadence of British commercial energy and enterprise,—but the failure of England to keep pace with other nations in industrial skill and dexterity of hand, and in the dexterous and expert manipulation of the raw material, and its change into articles of beauty and taste.

It has been over and over again demonstrated that, as a rule, no very successful efforts can be made to engraft industrial skill of a high type on the dormant intellectual powers of an uneducated person, so as to make it a mental acquisition, except in special cases. This statement is put in another form by the present Colonial Secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, in a speech delivered by him last year in Birmingham. He said :—

"All experience shows that Technical Schools and technical training are of greater advantage when they are offered to those who have already been disciplined and trained in something like a general course of instruction. It is the all-round student who is the best practical scientist, and therefore, without the least hesitation, I would appeal to manufacturers . . . and for their own credit to give their hearty support to this [University] project."

The Reports of the Science and Art Department lay special stress on the fact, that the greatest hindrance to the work of technical and industrial training is the fact that children are not sufficiently prepared in the elementary schools for either,—they leave school too soon.

WHAT ENGLAND HAS RECENTLY DONE FOR INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

So great has been the commercial competition and rivalry between England and, chiefly, continental nations, that the Government has given special attention to the subject, by increasing facilities for the training of industrial experts. In 1889, an Act was passed, with a view to extend these facilities, and to provide, by Act of Parliament, for the establishment of Technical Schools—chiefly by the County Councils. This Act was revised and its provisions extended in 1891. Last year, too, in order to give greater certainty, and fuller precision to the purposes for which the Science and Art Department was established, the Government has proposed, in a recent Bill, to merge that Department, (and some of the functions of others), in the one pertaining to education, and to constitute a Central Board of Education, (as a substitute for both). An additional Bill places the proposed "Secondary," (or Higher,) Schools under the direction of this Central National Board.

EXPERTS' RECENT REPORT ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

It was hoped that with such increased facilities for local industrial training, and such as would be effectively promoted by the Government direct, that the continental competition, in articles of taste and skill, would become less acute as time went on. But a strong note of warning, that this need not be expected in the near future, has been uttered by a number of experts on technical matters, headed by Sir Philip Magnus, who visited Germany in 1896, to attend exhibitions, and to make enquiries on the subject.

NO PROSPECT OF A DECREASE IN COMMERCIAL COMPETITION.

In their Report to the Duke of Devonshire, Lord President of the Privy Council and President of the Committee of that Council on Education, these gentlemen, after referring in detail to the remarkable progress of general scientific and industrial education in Germany, say :

"The lesson to be derived from all this activity, in matters pertaining to education, is clearly this, that our foreign rivals are determined to keep well ahead in the matter of facilities for instruction . . . in those Institutions wherein the highest branches of scientific instruction are pursued.

"They are convinced that the Nation which has the best Schools is the best prepared for the great industrial warfare which lies before us,* and no money appears to be grudged for the erection, equipment and maintenance of Educational Institutions of all grades, and especially, of the Science Laboratories, which, as we have seen, are being multiplied in Germany.

"The great industries of to day depend more and more upon the successful application of recent discoveries to ordinary manufacturing processes.

"In the industrial race, in which we are engaged, nearly all the advantages upon which we pride our lives in the past, are possessed, in a greater or less degree, by our rivals, and count for little, as compared with scientific knowledge, and its ready application to the manufacturer."

* As a coincidence, and, in confirmation of this opinion on the part of English experts, it is worthy of note, that, in a debate in the German Reichstag, on the 13th of January, 1899, a prominent Deputy, (Cabel) stated, amid cheers, that : "In the struggle of commercial competition the victor will be the Nation possessing the most intelligent workmen."—(*Debate on the German Army Bill*).

The Report of these Experts concludes with the following remarks :—

"There are indications that, in the immediate future, our own countrymen will have to encounter a competition far more acute than anything they have yet had to grapple with.

"In the coming struggle for trade, our fine insular position, our splendid race of workers, and our excellent raw material, will undoubtedly count for much; but the possession of these advantages alone will not suffice; and we shall have to adopt certain of the methods which prevail abroad, about which our manufacturers in the past have cared too little, but which mean much to our customers

"We must not be content to live any longer upon the traditions and reputation of the past; but we must set ourselves to work diligently to study the wishes and fancies of those we have to serve; and we must, moreover, be prepared to meet them, even in such small subtleties as weight, measure and packing.

"Above all, we must endeavor to improve and develop our higher industrial and secondary literary and technical educational machinery to our peculiar conditions; we must see that it is maintained at least on a level with that of any other Nation.

"We shall have accomplished all that we hoped to do, as the result of our . . . mission, if we succeed in showing that there is no evidence of standing still, or of being satisfied with past progress in [technical education] in any direction in Germany. . . .

"Everything is being developed; and, in all branches of industry, there are signs of great activity."

RECENT UTTERANCES ON THE NECESSITY FOR ACTIVE EFFORTS.

It is clear, from the number of speeches recently made in England on this subject on "industrial supremacy," that an unusual amount of interest has been awakened if regard to the necessity for active measures being taken to recover lost ground. The Countess of Warwick is one who has taken a very decided stand in regard to industrial education. Of this she has given a practical proof, in her establishment at Dunmow, Essex, of a Technical School, in which is given a systematic training in elementary science. In a recent address on the subject, Lady Warwick, in effect, gave her reasons for this experimental movement, and said :—

"Sir John Gorst has given forcible expression in his utterances on the subject to the accumulated experience of those who had been engaged in carrying on educational work. The ground of his complaint, not to say despondency, was that, until we established, throughout the length and breadth of the land, places to enable our population to compete with other Nations in the markets of the world we could not maintain the position and industries, in which we were once supreme. Foreign Nations had long been alive to the fact that industrial supremacy was largely dependent upon the training of young children, from the time they entered school until they became bread winners. In this respect we had still much to learn from the foreigner. Money should be spent to equip the coming generation for life's great battle, for we were now behind in the race with other Nations. The knowledge called technical was simply the knowledge of the scientific principles underlying any particular industry, combined with the skill connected with that industry."

At a recent distribution of prizes at the London Institute, Mr. W. H. Preece, C.B., said that :—

"If this country was to hold its own against foreign rivals, enthusiasm must be aroused. At School and at College students could cultivate the great quality of self-reliance, the power of co-operation, and the spirit of justice, which were characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon race."

Mr. Bousfield said :—

"In technical teaching, England had some leeway to make up, but he believed she would do it, and that the qualities, which had placed Englishmen in the forefront of the commercial and manufacturing world, would not fail them now."

In a recent presidential address from Mr. R. L. Taylor, Organizing Science Master for the Manchester School Board, he said that : "Greater facilities for real technical instruction was one of the most urgent questions now before the Country. They had lagged behind terribly ; and it was really doubtful whether, after all their exertions, they had gained any ground during the last sixteen years. The Germans and Americans had pushed ahead more, he believed, than the English had, and the English were now no nearer to the former than when they first started to catch them up. And they must catch up. To continue to lag behind in the educational race would inevitably have the most disastrous effect upon their manufactures and their commerce. It was necessary that we should make up for lost ground."*

A writer (Mr. O. Tripp) in the *Nineteenth Century* for February, 1898, on "German *versus* British Trade in the East," uses the following strong language, on the subject of the commercial education of the youth designed for employment in houses engaged in foreign trade :

"If the instructors of our British youth do not watch it, they will one day awake and find that German zeal, industry and discipline are more calculated to win the great race of life than any amount of British pluck and muscle.

"A German youth intended for a commercial career is taught to read, write and speak modern languages ; and this knowledge has beyond all doubt been of incalculable advantage to Germany in gaining and retaining foreign or neutral markets."

Another feature of the value of industrial training, as a preventive of crime, is thus portrayed by Mr. Carroll D. Wright, an United States statistician :

"The intelligent skilled labourer is rarely found in a penal, or charitable, Institution. That kind of labour, which requires the most skill on the part of the workman to perform, insures him most perfectly against want and crime. Trade instruction, technical education, manual training,—all these are efficient elements in the reduction of crime, because they all help to better and truer economic conditions.

"This conviction has given us, in the United States, Scientific Schools, Technical Schools, Trade Schools, into which vast sums have been put as endowments, and which have yielded an hundred-fold in the industrial development of the Country, and many hundred-folds in its morals."

2. THE SECOND POTENT INFLUENCE ON ENGLISH PUBLIC OPINION.

It is appeals like the foregoing to the intelligent thoughtfulness of public men in England that have largely called into play the second influential cause which has operated so strongly on English public opinion in favour of a greatly improved system of Popular and Industrial Education.

During the last year, what may be termed the war-like competition, which sprung up between Great Britain and the other Nations of Europe, had the effect of arousing the Imperial Government to the extreme danger of allowing any of these Nations to outstrip her in such matters.

* As these pages were passing through the press, a striking instance of the prompt business ways of the Manager of Locomotive works in England and the United States is given by Sir George Paget, Chairman of the English Midland Railway Company. He said that :

"The Company had ordered 170 engines from English makers in December, 1897, and not one of them was yet delivered, and that, when the Company gave an additional order, in December, 1898, it could not get a promise that one engine would be delivered in fifteen months, so it was determined to ask for tenders from the Baldwin Company at Philadelphia, and from another Company in Connecticut. Offers were received ; and, in one instance, the delivery of ten engines was promised in ten weeks from the time the drawings were received, and in another case a shipment from America was promised in four months. The shareholders, the Chairman continued, could see, from this, that while the Midland Company could not get a single engine in England in fifteen months, it could get twenty from America in four months."

How equally, if not much more, should the possibility of being overmatched by commercial rivals, and her supremacy endangered, have the effect of evoking in England a similar spirit, but in a more peaceful direction, that, in the practical arts of life, she should not be surpassed by any Nation on the globe.

England has doubtless been studying that lesson deeply; as recent parliamentary proceedings have indicated.

It is gratifying to know that the practice has become general for public men—in and out of Parliament—to address gatherings of various kinds, in which some phase, or feature, of practical education is discussed or criticised.

As a rule these addresses are non-partizan and non-political.

Even when the Speakers are advocates of Voluntary, (Denominational,) Schools the special features of these Schools are generally kept in the back ground.

I have noted down from the English newspapers, a number of these addresses, and to these I would briefly refer, by way of illustration, of what I have stated.

In addition to various addresses by the Duke of Devonshire, Sir John Gorst, of the Education Department, and those of other Members of the Cabinet, the following are among the many educational addresses which were made by the parties named during the year 1898:—

Lord Reay on the Problems of Business Education. (December, 1898.)

Lord Russell, of Killowen, on the Urgency of Technical Education. (Dec., 1898.)

Earl Spencer on Recasting the Machinery for Managing Education. (Nov., 1898.)

Viscount Cross on sustaining Voluntary Schools. (April, 1898.)

Lord Battersea, on Recreative Evening Schools. (July, 1898.)

Lord Portsmouth, on Efficient Education in Voluntary Schools. (June, 1898.)

Lady Warwick, on Elementary Science in Rural Schools. (July, 1898.)

The Archbishop (Temple) of Canterbury, on the multiplicity of subjects to be taught in Schools. (June, 1898.)

Bishop Westcott of Durham, on the three principles as a basis of Education. (Nov., 1898.)

Bishop Creighton of London, on two qualities in pupils, to which Teachers should appeal,—curiosity and observation. (October, 1898.)

The Hon. Lymph Stanley, on the Position of higher Grade Schools. (Dec., 1898.)

Dean Maclure of Manchester, on the Desirability of Secondary Schools. (Dec., 1898.)

Sir Bernhard Samuelson, on the Desirability of Combining Literature with one's Occupation. (March, 1898.)

Sir Philip Magnus, on the great change which had taken place in Education in the Victorian era. (April, 1898.)

Sir Albert Rollit, M. P., on the necessity of Commercial Education. (Dec., 1898.)

Sir Norman Lockyer, on the progress of Knowledge. (October, 1898.)

Sir William Harcourt, M. P., on the Necessity of giving the Humblest a Chance of a Good Education. (October, 1898.)

Sir Joshua Fitch, on what London has done for Education. (November, 1898.)

Mr. Arnold Foster, M. P., on the Necessity for Thoroughness in Commercial Education. (October, 1898.)

Earl Spencer, on the necessity of meeting the keen industrial competition of America and Germany by establishing Technical Schools, open and free to all. (January, 1899.)

Dr. Macnamara of London, on Higher Grade Unrestricted Schools. (October, 1898.)

Mr. H. H. Asquith, M.P., on the Success of the Leys School, Cambridge. (February, 1898.)

Mr. Earnest Gray, M.P., on Voluntary School Associations. (April, 1898.)

Mr. J. H. Yoxall, M.P., on the Foundations of Technical Education. (June, 1898.)

Mr. Charles Morley M.P., on the Work of the Education National Association. (October, 1898.)

Mr. Lloyd George, on National Education, pure and simple. (April, 1898.)

It can be readily understood how public opinion would be aroused and stimulated under influences such as I have mentioned, and by the speeches and addresses which I have here enumerated. The more so would it be moved to vigorous action, since the necessity for greater facilities for industrial education has been widely felt and acknowledged, so as to meet successfully the keen competition for commercial supremacy, not only with the European continental nations but also with the far east—with Japan.

The form which, as a matter of fact, this increased and enlightened public opinion has taken in England has been the enlargement of the scheme of popular education, and its extension, in the direction of secondary, or higher, Schools, under the Government School Board System, to every part of England and Wales.

3. THE INFLUENCE OF THE UNIVERSITIES—ON PUBLIC OPINION IN ENGLAND.

It has been held by many, that there has been another influence at work all these years, silent and subtle, which has done as much, if not more, than any other force, to educate public opinion in England, in favour of a more enlarged and satisfactory system of public education. This subject—that of the influence of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge—is so well treated by one of the Heads of Colleges in Oxford, that I append it herewith:

In an instructive article on "The University of Oxford in 1898," the Honourable George C. Brodrick, Warden of Merton College, thus sums up the various influences which Oxford and Cambridge Universities have exercised on National Education in England. He says:—

"Even when the number of students in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge was much smaller than at present (about 3,000) Oxford and Cambridge virtually governed the whole course of higher Education throughout England.

"Formerly, as University degrees and honours were to be won by proficiency in Classics and Mathematics alone, Classics and Mathematics were the staple, if not the exclusive subject of teaching in Public Schools and Grammar Schools. . . . The Universities, by wisely extending their old narrow curriculum, are rapidly bringing the new studies within the range of their control, while, by undertaking the office of Examining Boards, on a very large scale, they have strengthened, to an extraordinary degree, their former hold on Secondary Education.

"But this . . . was as nothing compared with the influence now acquired by means of the inspection and examinations of Public Schools which [the two Universities] conduct independently, and of the lectures organized by the 'delegates for the extension of teaching beyond the limits of the University' in a large number of populous centres. To this must be added the experiment . . . of affiliating, not only Provincial Colleges, but Indian and Colonial Universities; . . . the experiment of superintending the practical training of Teachers and the generous arrangements made for the academical training of women. . . .

"By forming this widespread network of educational control, and occupying the centre of it, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have virtually made themselves arbiters of learning over a large proportion of Schools above the elementary grade, and assumed some of the most important functions of the Ministry of Education in other Countries.

"There is another cause of the vast educational power wielded by the [two Universities] . . . Many of those destined to guide the educational movement

... have themselves passed under the discipline and teaching of the older Universities. All the Head Masters of the . . . Grammar and High Schools . . . are graduates of Oxford or Cambridge. . . . The great body of Clergymen and Barristers, nearly all the English Bishops, and a large majority of the Judges, are *alumni* of Oxford or Cambridge. . . .

"The predominance of the older Universities in the direction of National Education is still more conspicuous in the *personnel* of the Education Office itself. The whole indoor staff of that Office, consisting of Secretaries and Examiners, have been recruited from Oxford or Cambridge,—the former having a certain preponderance. More than half of the School Inspectors for England and Wales are drawn from Oxford, and the rest from Cambridge [with few exceptions]. Not less marked is the prevalence of Oxford or Cambridge graduates on the staff of the Civil Service Commission, which now superintends the Examination for every branch of the Public Service. All the Commissioners, Secretaries and Examiners, with rare exceptions, have been selected from one or other of the older Universities. It was Oxford and Cambridge men who originated and shaped the open competitions for the Civil Service of India, and the Head Masters of the great Public Schools,—all Oxford and Cambridge men,—have been consulted at every turn in constructing the scheme of Army Examinations. . . . Of the last Governor Generals of India several have been Oxford men. . . . Of the last nine Prime Ministers five were educated at Oxford, and one at Cambridge. In the present (Salisbury) Cabinet eleven Ministers, out of nineteen, are Oxford men, and three Cambridge men; in the last (Gladstone) Cabinet, seven were Oxford men and six Cambridge men. . . . In the House of Commons . . . above one-fifth of its present Members are Oxford men, and above one-eighth . . . are from Cambridge, besides many who have graduated from other Universities. . . .

"Perhaps the most potent of all agencies in a Country like our own is what is known as 'the Press.' . . . If the secrets of anonymous journalism could be unlocked,—if it could be ascertained how largely Newspapers, as well as Periodical Literature, are indebted to Oxford and Cambridge men for their special characteristics, and how largely English habits of thought are moulded by English newspapers and periodicals,—it would furnish a crowning proof of the all-pervading influence exercised by our Universities on national life."

APPROXIMATE COMPLETION OF THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

There is no question that, although the Educational System of England is disjointed, and, in some respects, fragmentary, yet the English Statesmen of to-day have seen, for some time, the necessity for the proper and effective dovetailing of these several parts of that system into a consecutive whole,—as I have shown in Chapters VII. and VIII.

The details and appliances for a thorough system of Elementary Schools are already provided for. Those in charge of these Schools are required to see to it that every child admitted to them must have facilities to enjoy all the privileges and advantages of these Schools, whether managed by School Boards, or by Voluntary Denominational Associations.

So far so well; but, up to this time, the connecting link has been missing, not, it is true, as a matter of fact, but as actually part and parcel of a connected whole, and as the recognized stepping stone to the University.

At length, this disjointed system of Elementary and Higher Schools is to be welded together. This joining together is to be effected by Act of Parliament, and both classes of Schools are to be controlled and directed by a strong central authority, about to be created, in the shape of an Imperial Board of Education—the Members of which are to be chiefly Members of the Cabinet.

The object of this new departure is thus explained in a Memorandum attached to the "Bill on Secondary Education,"—a Bill which was introduced into Parliament in June, 1898, by the Duke of Devonshire, Lord President of the Privy Council.

"The object of this Bill," says the Memorandum, "is the Parliamentary recognition of Secondary Education, to complete the National System of Education in England:—

"(1) By consolidating the Educational powers . . . possessed by the Charity Commissioners, the Science and Art Department, and the present Education Department, into one Central Educational Authority, under the Committee of the Privy Council on Education; and

"(2) By establishing local Secondary Education Authorities, to administer areas not less than those of a County, or a County Borough. . . .

"With the object of keeping the administration in constant touch with the practical side of Education, this Central Authority has attached to it an Advisory Council, to which questions connected with Secondary Education are to be referred, . . . and each local Educational Authority shall include an adequate proportion of persons of educational experience."

When this Bill shall have passed, it will effect more, or less, of a revolution in the management, control and efficiency of a large class of Higher Schools, now practically controlled by individuals, or by local corporations.

Thus, the prospects are: That before this year is out, the completion will have been effected, so far as Parliament and the Central Administration are concerned, of the "National System of Education in England," which will then have become an actual and a gratifying fact.

J. GEORGE HODGINS.

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